## URDU: AN ESSENTIAL GRAMMAR

Ruth Laila Schmidt

First published 1999 by Routledge
2 Park Square, Milton Park, Abingdon, Oxon OX14 4RN
Simultaneously published in the USA and Canada
by Routledge
270 Madison Ave, New York, NY 10016
Reprinted 2006
Transferred to Digital Printing 2007
Routledge is an imprint of the Taylor \& Francis Group, an informa business
Reprinted with corrections 2004
© 1999, 2004 Ruth Laila Schmidt
Typeset in Norman, Jawhar and South Asia Times by R.L. Schmidt Printed and bound in Great Britain

All rights reserved. No part of this book may be reprinted or reproduced or tilised in any form or by any electronic, mechanical, or other means, now known or hereafter invented, including photocopying and recording, or in any information storage or retrieval system, without permission in writing from the publishers.

## British Library Cataloguing in Publication Data

A catalogue record for this book is available from the British Library
Library of Congress Cataloging in Publication Data A catalogue record for this book has been requested

ISBN 10: 0-415-16380-3 (bbk)
ISBN 10: 0-415-16381-1 (pbk)
ISBN 13: 978-0-415-16380-4 (hbk)
ISBN 13: 978-0-415-16381-1 (pbk)

This book is dedicated to Bruce R. Pray in recognition of his four decades of service to the Urdu language, and his contribution to the study of Urdu
through the establishment of the
Berkeley Urdu Language Program
List of tables ..... xiii
Preface by Gopi Chand Narang ..... xiv
Introduction ..... xvi
Symbols and abbreviations used in the text ..... xix
1 NOUNS1
Gender and marking
Gender; marking; marked nouns; unmarked nouns; natural gendersome other clues to gender of nounsNoun plurals5
Forms (nominative case); non-count (mass) noun
Inflection of nouns7
Nominative case; oblique case; oblique nouns resulting fromdropping of kō; expressing totality; vocative case of nounsRepetition of nounsSimple repetition; repetition with an echo word13
Nouns as units of measure13
Other parts of speech used as nouns ..... 14
2 PRONOUNS ..... 15
Demonstrative pronouns ..... 15
ye, 'this' and vo, 'that'
Personal pronouns ..... 17
Forms; honorific levels in second person pronouns; ham used as a first person singular pronoun; omission of personal pronouns; log as a plural specifier; nominative pronouns; oblique (inflected) pronouns; the suffix $\tilde{\mathbf{e}} \sim$ (h)ḕm replacing kō; pronouns before the postposition nē; possessive forms of personal pronouns
Reflexive pronouns
The reflexive possessive adjective apnā; xud and āp, 'self';
apnē āp, xud baxud, āpas mëm., 'among'
Interrogative pronouns
kyā, 'what?'; kyā marking questions and exclamations; kaun,
'who?'; oblique forms of kyā and kaun
Indefinite pronouns
kōi, 'some(one)', 'any(one)'; kucb, 'some(thing)', 'any(thing)'
Relative pronoun jō
Repeated pronouns ..... 30
kyā kyā; kaun kaun; kōi kōī, kōī na kō̄i; kuch kucb, kucb na kuch
3 ADJECTIVES ..... 32
Marking ..... 32
Marked adjectives; unmarked adjectives
Agreement34
Agreement in gender and number; agreement in case; agreement with noun sequences of different gender; attributive and predicate adjectives
Pronouns used as adjectives
Interrogative pronouns; indefinite pronouns
Symmetrical y-v-k-j word sets
The categories near - far - interrogative - relative
Adjective phrases formed with sā and vālā
The adjectival particle sā ( $\sim$ sē $\sim$ sī); the suffix vālā
Repeated adjectives
Simple repetition; repetition with an echo word

## Comparison of adjectives

Comparison of adjectives with sẽ; comparison of adjectives with tar, tarin; zyāda, 'more', 'most' and kāfí, 'quite', 'too'; superlatives with adjective + sē + adjective
Adjectives with other grammatical functions
Adjectives used as adverbs; adjectives used as nouns
Adjectives discussed in other cbapters
Participles used as adjectives; possessive adjectives; the reflexive possessive adjective apnä; numbers
4 ADVERBS
Symmetrical y-v-k-j adverb sets 5
The categories NEAR - FAR - INTERRogative - relative Adverbs of time
ab -ab-kab-jab; is vaqt-us vaqt-kis vaqt; calendar and clock time Adverbs of place
yahăm̆-vahăற̆m்-kahām̆; idhar-udhar-kidhar, is jagah-us jagah-
kis jagah; is taraf-us taraf-kis taraf; obliques as adverbs of place;
adverbial phrase or compound postposition?
Adverbs of manner
yūmi-kyōmí-jūn்; aisā-vaisā-kaisā-jaisä; is tarah-us tarah-
kis tarah-jis tarah; adverbial phrases of manner with the
postposition sē; participles used adverbially
Adverbs of degree
Modal adverbs
'neither ... nor'; phir, 'again', 'then'
Arabic adverbs ending in -an
Repeated adverbs
Simple repetition; idiomatic repetition
Interrogatives and indefinites used with irony
Interrogative adverbs used with irony; indefinite adverbs used
with irony; interrogative pronouns used with irony
Order of multiple adverbs
5 POSTPOSITIONS
Grammatical postpositions
$\mathbf{k} \bar{a} \sim \mathbf{k} \bar{e} \sim k \bar{i}$ expressing possession; kā marking objects; inflected $k \bar{a}$ in compound postpositions; kō and its alternate forms; kō marking objects; kō marking subjects; kō showing movement in a direction or to a destination; kō after days and dates; kō following infinitives; nē marking subjects
Spatial-temporal postpositions
sē with ablative function; sē marking the instrument; sē in comparison of adjectives; sē in adverbial phrases; sē marking objects; sē forming postpositional sequences; tak showing extent or limit; tak as an emphatic particle; mēm with locative function; infinitives followed by mëmं; par with locative function; par showing movement to a destination; par following oblique infinitives; obliquc infinitive + par bhī; par marking objects; collocations of verbs with postpositions
Compound postpositions
$\mathbf{k} \bar{a}+$ oblique noun + postposition; $k \bar{a}+$ oblique noun; $\mathbf{k} \bar{a}+$ oblique adjective; $\mathbf{k} \bar{a}+$ adverb; $(\mathbf{k} \bar{a})+$ Persian preposition + oblique noun; noun + izāfat
Postpositional sequences
Spatial-temporal postpositions + sē
Expressing possession ('to have')
Inalienable possession: $\mathbf{k a ̄}(\sim \mathbf{k e} \sim \mathbf{k} \overline{\mathbf{x}})$; alienable possession: $\mathbf{k e} p \overline{\mathrm{a}}$; intangible possession: kō
Forms of the verb ..... 87
Root; infinitive; imperfective participle; perfective participle The verb hōnā, 'to be' ..... 92

The conjugation of hōnā; hōnā as an auxiliary verb
Denominative verbs

## Verb forms based on the verb root

96Subjunctive; conditional sentences; request forms; future tense;
conjunctive participles; repeated roots in conjunctive participles; continuous tenses; continuous present; continuous past; other continuous tenses; root + saknā (ability, possibility); root + pānā (possibility); root + cuknä (completion); compound verbs
Verb forms based on the imperfective participle
Imperfective participles alone; habitual present; habitual past; other habitual tenses; imperfective participle + rahnă (iterative); imperfective participle $+j$ ānā (progression); imperfective participle used as an adjective
Verb forms based on the perfective participle
Agreement in perfective tenses; simple past; immediate past; remote past; other punctual tenses; derived passive; incapacity; perfective participle + karnā (habit or practice); perfective participle + rahnă (continuation); perfective participle used as an adjective

## Infinitives

Infinitives as verbal nouns; infinitives as request forms
Constructions with nominative case infinitives
Impersonal constructions; infinitive + hai (necessity); infinitive + cähiē (advisability); infinitive + pạnää (obligation, lack of choice)
Constructions with oblique case infinitives
Oblique infinitive + vālā; oblique infinitive + kō; oblique infinitive

+ lagnā (commenced event); oblique infinitive + dēnă ('let');
oblique infinitive + verb of motion (purpose); oblique infinitive
$+k \bar{a}$ (negative assertion)
7 COMPOUND VERBS
Compound verbs and simple verbs
The structure of compound verb phrases; the difference between compound and simple verbs
Intransitive vector verbs
The vector verb $j \bar{a} \bar{n} a ̄ ;$ the vector verb parnā; the vector verb nikalnā; the vector verb uthnnā; the vector verb baiṭhnā
Transitive vector verbs
The vector verb dënä; the vector verb lēnā; the vector verb ḍălnă; the vector verb rakhnā
Mixed transitivity in compound verbs
Transitive main verbs with intransitive vectors; intransitive main verbs with transitive vectors
Restrictions on occurrence of compound verbs
Constructions based on the verb root or infinitive; participial
constructions; passive constructions; negative sentences
Perfective participles as main verbs

Nominative perfective participles; oblique perfective participles

8 INTRANSITIVE, TRANSITIVE AND CAUSATIVE VERBS
Intransitive and transitive verbs
The difference between transitive and intransitive verbs; agreement of verbs; the increment-ā; transitives derived with the increment $-\overline{\mathrm{a}}$; double transitives derived with the increment $-\bar{a}$; transitivity with compound verbs; transitivity with denominative verbs; verbs which function both intransitively and transitively; exceptions: transitives without nē, intransitives with $\mathbf{n \overline { e }}$
Causative verbs
Direct causatives derived with the increment -ā; indirect causatives formed with the increment -vā; causative denominative verbs; causative verbs in requests

9 PARTICIPLES AS QUALIFIERS

## Imperfective participles

Adjectival use of imperfective participles; adverbial use of imperfective participles; imperfective participle + vaqt, 'while (VERB)-ing'; imperfective participle +hi , 'as soon as (VERB)'; repeated imperfective participles; imperfective participles used as nouns
Perfective participles
Adjectival use of perfective participles; adverbial use of perfective participles; adverbial perfective participles in expressions of time; repeated perfective participles; perfective participles used as nouns; perfective participles in compound verbs
Conjunctive participles
Conjunctive participles used adverbially; repeated roots in
conjunctive participles
10 WORD ORDER AND AGREEMENT IN SENTENCES

## Word order

Word order in sentences; objects; noun phrases; adverbs; negative sentences; interrogative sentences
11 RELATIVE-CORRELATIVE SENTENCES ..... 196
The structure of relative sentences ..... 196

Relative words and their counterparts; deep structure of relativecorrelative sentences; order of clauses in relative-correlative sentences; stipulative relative clauses; correlatives specified by hi
The relative pronoun jō
Nominative form of $\mathbf{j} \mathbf{0}$; oblique and plural forms of jō
Relative adjectives
jaisā; jitnā
Relative adverbs of place
jahäm̉, jis jagah; jidhar, jis taraf
Relative adverbs of time
jab; jab sē, jab tak; jab tak + negative, 'until', 'unless'; jab ke, 'while'; jis vaqt
Relative adverbs of manner
jaisē; jaisē hī; jis tarah; jūm்
Indefinite compounds and repeated relatives
Relative words followed by indefinite words, '-ever'; relative words followed by bhī, '-ever'; repeated relative words

## 12 PARTICLES, INTERJECTIONS AND CONJUNCTIONS

Particles
The contrastive emphatic particle tō; tō introducing result clauses in conditional sentences; nahim tō; tō introducing correlative clauses; the exclusive emphatic particle hi; sequences of nouns and pronouns + postpositions + hï; hī occurring as a suffix; kahïm expressing improbability or apprehension; oblique imperfective participle + hīi, 'as soon as'; bhī as inclusive emphatic particle, 'even'; emphatic and concessive phrases ending in bhī; hï nahim ... bhï in parallel clauses; oblique infinitive + par bhï, 'despite'; indefinite pronouns + bhī, 'at all'; relative words followed by bhī, '-ever'; the adjectival particle sā (sē $\sim$ sì)
Interjections
Vocative interjections; free interjections
Leaders and tags
The leaders kyōm and kyōm na; acchā introducing sentences; the concessive tag sahī; the rhetorical tag $\overline{n \bar{a}}$

## Conjunctions

Subject-verb agreement; verb phrases; agreement with mixed subjects; agreement with transitive verbs; agreement with impersonal verbs; mixed transitivity; adjective-noun agreement

Coordinating conjunctions; correlative conjunctions; causal conjunctions; concessive conjunctions; subordinating conjunctions; ke introducing subordinate clauses; ke introducing coordinate clauses; ke introducing quotations and reported facts
13 NUMBERS AND TIME ..... 228
Cardinal numbers; ordinal numbers; fractions; 'once', 'twice', emultiplicatives ('twofold', 'double', etc.); repeated numbers;numbers with the oblique plural
Calendar and clock time237
244
Months; days; writing the date; telling the time Money
14 PERSIAN ELEMENTS IN URDU ..... 246
The enclitic izăfat ..... 4
Word-forming affixes ..... 248
Nominal suffixes; prefixes; prepositions; plural suffixes ..... 253
Present and past verb stems ..... 253Compounds
Miscellaneous ..... 256Comparison of adjectives with tar, tarin; Persian numbers
15 ARABIC ELEMENTS IN URDU ..... 258
Triliteral root structure of Arabic words ..... 258
Arabic derived verb forms; Arabic verbal nouns and participles ..... 265Noun duals and plurals
Dual form of Arabic nouns; plural forms of Arabic nouns Arabic prepositions and particles ..... 267
Prepositions; negative particles ..... 268
Miscellaneous
The definsuffixes
16 CEREMONIOUS AND PIOUS SPEECH ..... 272
Greetings and introductions ..... 272
Formal and ceremonious speech ..... 276
Formal polite requests; thanking someone; congratulations ..... 277
Mentioning holy prophets; phrases for planning or beginning something; phrases invoking protection and short prayers; phrases of repentance and requests for forgiveness; phrases for sad occasions; phrases for happy occasions ..... 284
Index ..... 286

## LIST OF TABLES

Table 1: Plural of nouns .....  .6
Table 2: Oblique case of nouns ..... 10
Table 3: Vocative case of nouns .....  12
Table 4: Persons and cases of personal pronouns ..... 17
Table 5: Oblique pronouns + alternate forms of kō .....  21
Table 6: Forms of pronouns before nē ..... 22
Table 7: Possessive forms of personal pronouns .....  24
Table 8: Oblique and plural forms of kyà and kaun ..... 27
Table 9: Gender and number suffixes of adjectives. .....  34
Table 10: Case suffixes of adjectives ..... 35
Table 11: Symmetrical $y$-v-k-j word sets .....  39
Table 12: Symmetrical $\mathbf{y}-\mathrm{v}-\mathrm{k}$ - j adverb sets .....  52
Table 13: Overview of aspect, tense and mood .....  89
Table 14: Irregular perfective participles .....  .92
Table 15: The present, past, subjunctive and future forms of hōnā .....  92
Table 16: Forms of the subjunctive .....  97
Table 17: Irregular request forms ..... 105
Table 18: Forms of the future ..... 107
Table 19: Continuous present tense of karnā ..... 112
Table 20: Continuous past tense of karnā ..... 113
Table 21: Habitual present tense of karnã ..... 119
Table 22: Habitual past tense of kamā ..... 121
Table 23: Immediate past of jānā ..... 127
Table 24: Remote past of jānā ..... 128
Table 25: Relative ( $\mathbf{j}$ ) words and their 'far' ( $\mathbf{v} \sim \mathbf{u}$ ) counterparts ..... 197
Table 26: Oblique and plural forms of jö. ..... 200
Table 27: Personal pronouns + bound forms of hi ..... 213
Table 28: Adverbs + bound forms of hi ..... 214
Table 29: Cardinal numbers from 1 to 100 ..... 230
Table 30: Numerals from 1 to 100 ..... 232
Table 31: Forms I-VII and X of " $\mathrm{\sigma}$ fa ${ }^{\text {c ala }}$ ..... 260
Table 32: Verbal nouns and participles of ${ }^{\mathcal{V}}$ فُ and its derived forms ..... 261
by Gopi Chand Narang

Urdu is a major language of South Asia which has been gaining in popularity since the advent of independence of India and Pakistan. It is one of the eighteen national languages listed in the Constitution of India, as well as the national language of Pakistan. Unlike Arabic and Persian, Urdu is an Indo-Aryan language akin to Hindi. Both Urdu and Hindi share the same Indic base, and at the phonological and grammatical level they are so close that they appear to be one language, but at the lexical level they have borrowed so extensively from different sources (Urdu from Arabic and Persian, and Hindi from Sanskrit) that in actual practice and usage each has developed into an independent language. This distinction is further marked at the orthographic level, where Hindi uses Devanagari and Urdu uses the Arabo-Persian script indigenously modified to suit the equirements of an Indo-Aryan speech. With this context in view, although the grammars of these languages cover much common ground, nevertheless in order to do justice to the differing sociolinguistic paradigms, separate materials have o be developed for each of these languages, which taken together form the fourth largest speech community in the modem world.

The grammatical tradition of Urdu and Hindi is now almost three centuries old, beginning with Ketelar in the seventeenth century and continuing through Schultze, Forbes, Fallon, Platts, Shakespear, Gilchrist and others down to the nineteenth century. While Platts' work has become a classic and is reprinted time and again, the others have fallen into disuse. Lately, with inputs from modern linguistics, and the fresh impetus given by Urdu's new status as a national language as well as a cultural vehicle of the Indo-Pakistani diaspora, the need for new teaching materials is ever on the increase. The work of scholars such as Barker, McGregor, Russell, Shackle, Glassman, Pray, Naim and others has met some of the present need, however most of them have developed languageteaching books in which a discussion of the grammar is included as part of the pedagogical requirement. As far as I know, no reference grammar of Urdu (or Hindi) has so far been written, and it is precisely this gap which the present volume attempts to fill.

I have known Ruth Laila Schmidt for more than twenty years, since her study of Dakhini Urdu appeared. She is widely travelled in India and Pakistan, spending years in research and teaching. Her research in the Dardic language Shina, and her Practical Dictionary of Modern Nepali, have in particular been well received. She belongs to that brand of South Asian linguistic scholars who deserve attention for their sense of dedication and thoroughness. It has been my pleasure to interact with her on this grammar, and I found the work fulfilling. Though the volume is called a reference grammar, I am sure it can profitably be
read from cover to cover in a systematic way. As such it breaks fresh ground, and $I$ do hope it will serve as a model for future intrepid scholars in the difficult terrain of South Asian grammatical studies.

## What is Urdu?

Urdu is widely spoken not only in South Asia but also in the West. Worldwide, there are nearly 55 million Urdu speakers.

In Pakistan it is the national language and is used in instruction in most government schools, at the lower levels of administration, and in the mass media. ${ }^{2}$ The number of Urdu speakers in Pakistan has been estimated at almost 11 million with the largest number in the province of Sindh, followed by Panjab.

Urdu is also one of the 18 national languages of the Union of India. There are almost 44 million Urdu speakers in India, with the largest numbers found in the state of Uttar Pradesh, followed by Bihar, Maharashtra, Andhira Pradesh and Karnataka. Delhi is also a significant centre not only of Urdu speakers but of Urdu literature and publishing.

Urdu is also spoken in Bangladesh, Afghanistan and Nepal, and has become the culture language and lingua franca of the South Asian Muslim diaspora outside the subcontinent, particularly in the Middle East, Europe, the United States and Canada.

Historically, Urdu developed from the sub-regional language of the Delhi area, which became a literary language in the eighteenth century. Two quite similar standard forms of the language developed in Delhi, and in Lucknow in modern Uttar Pradesh. Since 1947, a third form, Karachi standard Urdu, has evolved.

## What does this work cover?

Urdu: An Essential Grammar is intended to present as complete a description of the grammar of Delhi Standard Urdu as is possible in the space available. It does not cover Urdu phonology or the writing system. The inventory of grammatical structures has been compiled from existing textbooks as well as from texts typically read in second- and third-year Urdu classes.

This work is a reference grammar rather than a pedagogical grammar. Grammatical constructions are grouped by topical headings: nouns, pronouns, adjectives, adverbs, verbs, etc., with a network of cross references to other sections. It is intended to serve a resource to which to refer as one reads texts; to

1 Sources: The Summer Inslitule of Linguistics Ethnologue, Census of India 1991, Census of Pakistan 1981, Encyclopedia Britannica (Britannica Online).

2 Tariq Rahman, Language and Politics in Pakistan, Karachi: Oxford University Press, 1996.
look up complex grammatical constructions, or review more elementary constructions; and with the help of the table of contents, index and cross-references, to look up individual sentences and analyse them without reading the whole book. Ideally one should be able to start anywhere in Urdu: An Essential Grammar and find the information one needs.

Although one can certainly read this book from cover to cover, and the author has kept that kind of reader in mind, that is not its primary purpose. This means that some constructions must be looked up in several different places. If a person wishes to make a comprehensive review of the use of nē with perfective tense transitive verbs, he or she must consult all the following sections: $\S 211$, $\S 510, \S 629$ and $\S 809$, because the në construction involves a postposition, verb constructions, special forms of pronouns, and the notion of transitivity; and each of these is dealt with under its own heading. Cross references are provided to make the search easier.

## Transcription system

The primary purpose of the transcription system, which is adapted from that presented by R.S. McGregor, ${ }^{3}$ is to provide a guide for pronunciation. The two main departures are: (a) the Arabic letters ث́ distinguished, and (b) long and shorte and o are distinguished as: è/oö (even though short e o are allophones of / iaus). The purpose for transcribing them in this way is that the environments of short e, o are many, complex and often require a knowledge of the spelling of the word, or its origin; thus this convention is expected to be helpful to the reader.

## How should this book be used?

This work is most useful to students who already have a basic knowledge of Urdu. The reader may begin by skimming the table of contents to get an overview of what is covered and how it is organized. A reader who knows what he or she is looking for may find it here. Alternatively, one may look up key words in the index. For example, the uses of the adverb bhī 'also' are listed in the index under 'bhi', 'emphatic particles', 'modal adverbs', 'both ... and', 'neither ... nor' and 'relative words followed by bhï'. Finally, look up any reference and follow the network of cross-references.

In the example sentences, the grammatical topic under discussion is highlighted by italicization of words in the Urdu transcription and the corresponding English translation. Occasionally, a literal translation holds the italicized equivalent. The following examples illustrate italicization.

3 R.S. McGregor, Urdu Study Materials, Delhi: Oxford University Press, 1992.

| دفترى كام | أس كا نام دجهٍ هعلوم - |
| :---: | :---: |
| daftari kām | us kā nām mujhē mălüm hai |
| official work | I know his name (his name is known to me |

If there is no italicization in an example, it is because the structure of the Urdu original and the translation are too disparate to permit the technique, because the entire sentence would need to be italicized, or because the relevant Urdu word is not expressed in the translation. For example, kyā in the sentence below merely introduces a question, and is not translated.

كيا يم گهزا بـ
kyā ye ghạ̣à hai?
Is this is a water pot?

## Acknowledgements

The author thanks Professor Gopi Chand Narang of the Sahitya Akademi, New Delhi (formerly of Delhi University and Jamia Millia Islamia) for checking the example sentences and for providing guidance during the writing process. Without his sharp judgement and insight into Urdu, this would have been a much poorer work. The grammatical analysis based on the example sentences is my own, and only I am responsible for any errors.

Dr. Elena Bashir and Professor Christopher Shackle read the entire manuscript and offered criticisms and suggestions. I am grateful to them both, and solely responsible for any errors or omissions which may remain.

Numerous colleagues responded to my qucries for information during the thrce years it has taken to produce this grammar; there is not room to mention them all by name, but they are remembered with gratitude. I also wish to thank the tutors and programme evaluators of the University of California's Berkeley Urdu Language Program in Pakistan for patiently answering my many questions.

The Department of East European and Oriental Studies of the University of Oslo provided sabbatical leave as well as resources for the production of the manuscript and funds for the visit of Professor Narang to the University of Oslo.

The roman text in this book is set in the Norman font, except for the examples in Chapter 15, which are set in Jerome Bauer's South Asia Times Bold. Urdu is set in the Jawhar font produced by Kamal Mansour of Monotype, U.S.A., which was provided by Monotype as a courtesy.

| $\mathbf{x} \rightarrow \mathbf{y}$ | $\mathbf{x}$ becomes $\mathbf{y}$ |
| :--- | :--- |
| $\mathbf{x}<\mathbf{y}$ | $\mathbf{x}$ is derived from $\mathbf{y}$ |
| $\mathbf{x}+\mathbf{y}$ | $\mathbf{y}$ is added to $\mathbf{x}$ |
| $\mathbf{x} \sim \mathbf{y}$ | $\mathbf{y}$ is a variant or inflected form of $\mathbf{x}$ |
|  |  |
| f. | feminine |
| int. | intransitive |
| lit. | literally |
| m. | masculine |
| pl. | plural |
| sg. | singular |
| tr. | transitive |
|  |  |
| AP | active participle |
| PP | passive participle |
| VN | verbal noun |

## 1 NOUNS

Urdu has two grammatical genders: masculine (m.) and feminine (f.). Nouns may have special gender suffixes (marking), or be unmarked for gender. Nouns are inflected to show number (singular or plural) and case (nominative, oblique or vocative).

## GENDER AND MARKING

101 Gender
All Urdu nouns belong to one of two noun genders, masculine and feminine.

| Masculine |  | Feminine |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 13] | laṛkā, boy | , ${ }^{\text {3 }}$ larkī, girl |
| بٌ | bacca, (male) child | ج类 ciriyā, bird |
| \% | ghar, house | - mēz, table |

## 102 Marking

All Urdu nouns may be additionally divided into two groups: those which are marked for gender (marked nouns), and those which have no special gender suffix (unmarked nouns).

Plural nouns, excepting masculine unmarked nouns, have distinctive gender suffixes. See $\S 107$.

## 103 Marked nouns

Nouns ending in the masculine gender suffixes $-\overline{\mathbf{a}} 1,-\mathbf{a} \circ$ and -aya $\sim$ are masculine:

| 13) | larkā, boy | ب才 | bacca, (male) child |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| روغا | murүā, rooster | ) | rūpaya, rupee, money |

Extremely rarely, the suffix $-\bar{a}$ is nasalized.
kūām, well

Nouns ending in the feminine gender suffixes-ī $\mathcal{1}$ or -iyāal يا are feminine.


104 Unmarked nouns
Nouns which do not end in the above gender suffixes are unmarked, and their gender must be learned.

| \%ه8 | ghar, house (m.) |
| :---: | :---: |
| كام | kăm, work (m.) |
| كت | kitāb, book (f.) |

Special attention should be paid to nouns that look like marked nouns, but are not. A number of common masculine nouns end in -i. They are either suffixless nouns that happen to end in $-\bar{i}$, or nouns formed with the occupation suffix $-\mathbf{i}$.

| پانی | pānī, water (suffixless) |
| :---: | :---: |
| جهازی |  |

Some feminine nouns end in -ā, -a or -äm. They are either suffixless words that happen to end in $-\bar{a},-\mathrm{a},-\mathrm{a} \dot{\mathrm{m}}$, or Arabic nouns in which the final -a o results from an Arabic suffix - $t$ a which derives a feminine noun from a masculine one:


Feminine nouns formed with the suffix -iyã should not be confused with masculine nouns.


## 105 Natural gender

The biological gender of people or animals denoted by a noun usually determines the gender of the noun.
mām, mother (term of address) (f.)
hăp, father (term of address) (m.)
daktar, doctor (masculine if a man, feminine if a woman)
دستکار
dastkār, artisan (masculine if a man, feminine if a woman)

## 106 Some other clues to gender of nouns

Some other suffixes or noun patterns help to identify the gender of nouns.

## Arabic loanwords

Arabic nouns ending in -at يت and-ā | are usually feminine.

```
ق qīmat, price
حيثيت haisiyat, status, capacity
    ح hayā, modesty
    lgد davä,medicin
```

Verbal nouns of the pattern taffil تفعيل are feminine.

| تكليف | taklif, trouble |
| :---: | :---: |
| تصوير tasvir, picture |  |

Arabic nouns ending in -a o are usually masculine.

$$
\begin{array}{ll}
\text { شصمل } & \text { hamla, attack } \\
\text { qissa, story }
\end{array}
$$

However, vālida والده, 'mother'; tàliba طالبر, 'female student'; dafa دفعم, 'time', are feminine. Note also that not all masculine nouns ending in -a are borrowed from Arabic, as there is an increasing tendency to write chōṭị he oin
 pata پֶ for patā 'room' (Portuguese).

## Persian loanwords

Nouns ending in the place suffixes-gāh $\begin{aligned} & \text { Bnd }-\bar{a} \bar{e} \\ & \text { are feminine. }\end{aligned}$

```
& ibādatgãh, place of worship
```



Nouns ending in the noun－forming suffixes $-\bar{i}$ ，and－gi $\sqrt{ }$ are feminine．

```
دوستى döstä, friendship
ز\mp@code{jovindagi,, life}
```

Nouns ending in the place suffix－istān or－stān ستان are masculine：

$$
\begin{array}{ll}
\text { ریگستستان } & \text { pākistān, Pakistan } \\
\text { rēgistān, desert }
\end{array}
$$

## Indigenous Urdu words

Most indigenous nouns ending in $-\overline{\mathbf{u}}$ or $-\overline{\mathrm{o}} \mathrm{g}$ are masculine．

| 4 | bhāo，market price |
| :---: | :---: |
| آلو | ālū，potato |
| gT\＄ | dā̄kū，robber |

However，personal names in rural areas are often formed by adding $-\bar{u}$ for men and $\overline{-} \overline{0}$ for women：

$$
\begin{array}{ll}
\text { تاجنونو } & \text { tājō (a woman's name) } \\
\text { ramzänüu (a man's name) }
\end{array}
$$

Nouns ending in the noun－forming suffixes－pan چֶ and－pã
bacpan，childhood
larakpan，boyhood；childishness
burhāpā，old age

Nouns ending in the diminutive suffix $-\mathbf{i} \quad \mathcal{S}^{-} \sim-$ iyã $\quad$ and the noun－forming suffix $-i \leqslant$ are feminine．

| s |  |
| :---: | :---: |
| خرِّ | ciṛiyā，bird（from cirā ${ }^{\frac{1}{j} \text { 令，male sparrow）}}$ |
| l | silā，seam，sewing（from silnā ，whe be sewn） |
| لم | lambä，length（from lambā |

 －yat يت are feminine．

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { گهابرابط ghabrāhat, confusion } \\
& \text { ركاوك rukāvaṭ, obstacle }
\end{aligned}
$$

## NOUN PLURALS

## 107 Forms（nominative case）

There are different plural suffixes for masculine marked，feminine marked and feminine unmarked nouns．Masculine unmarked nouns have no plural suffixes．
（a）The suffixes $-\overline{\mathbf{a}}$ and $-\mathbf{a}$（masculine marked）change to $-\overline{\mathbf{e}}$ ：

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { 绿 }
\end{aligned}
$$

If the suffix－ä is nasalized（－äm），the plural suffix is nasalized as well．

$$
\text { Kنوال } \leftarrow \text { كننوئين }
$$

（b）The suffix－aya（masculine marked）changes to－aē $\sim-\bar{e}$ ：

$$
\text { rūpaya } \rightarrow \text { rūpaē, rūpē, rupees }
$$

（c）Masculine unmarked nouns have no plural suffix：

$$
\text { گ\% ghar } \rightarrow \text { ghar, houses }
$$

（d）The suffix $\bar{i}$（feminine marked）changes to－iyām：

$$
\text { larki } \rightarrow \text { larkiyäme, girls }
$$

（e）Indigenous feminine nouns ending in－iyă take the plural in－iyäṁ．

$$
\text { cirịyă } \rightarrow \text { cirịyāmé, birds }
$$

（f）Feminine unmarked nouns add the plural suffix－ēm：

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { كتابب } \leftarrow \text { كتايي } \\
& \text { kitāb } \rightarrow \text { kităbēè, books } \\
& \text { davā } \rightarrow \text { davāēm, medicines }
\end{aligned}
$$

## Reduction of penultimate short vowel

When suffixes consisting of long vowels, including the nominative and oblique plural and the vocative, are added to roots containing two or more short vowels, the penultimate short vowel of the root is reduced or lost.

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { عورت aurat, woman }+ \text {-èm } \rightarrow \text { aurtēḿ, women } \\
& \text { bahen, sister + -èm } \rightarrow \text { bahnēmè, sisters }
\end{aligned}
$$

Table 1: Plural of nouns

| Masc. marked | Singular |  | Plural |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | 131 | larkā | , | larkē |
|  | 8, | kamra | 45 | kamrē |
|  | روّيي | rūpaya | روئغ ، رويه | rūpaē, rūpē |
|  | كنوان | kūāṃ | كنوئين | kūēm |
| Masc. unmafked | \%هر | ghar | \%هر | ghar |
| Fem. marked | لزكى | larki | لركّبان | laṛkiyäṅm |
|  | هط | cirịiyā |  | cirịyäm |
| Fem. unmarked | كتاب | kitāb | كتابيس | kităbërn |

## 108 Non-count (mass) nouns

Non-count (mass) nouns do not have plural forms.

```
ب< بهت
bahut pān\overline{1}
a lot of water
```



```
hamärē pās kāfícinì hai
We have plenty of sugar.
```

If one has occasion to speak of more than one variety of non-count nouns, they may be pluralized. However plural amounts of non-count nouns are usually qualified by the measure or container used to hold them. See $\S 116$.

hamārē pās dō tarah kī dālèṛ̀ haim
We have two kinds of lentils.

## INFLECTION OF NOUNS

Nouns may occur in the nominative, oblique or vocative case. ${ }^{1}$

## 109 Nominative case

Nominative nouns most commonly occur as the subjects of verbs. (In perfective tenses, however, the subjects of transitive verbs take the postposition nē, and are in the oblique case. See §629.)

larkā yahäm rahtā hai
The boylives here.
رويبه
nūpaya kal mile gā
The money will be available tomorrow.
A nominative noun may occur as the direct object of a sentence.

- بين كام كرتا بول اور روپيب كماتا بول
maim kām kartā hŭm̀ aur rūpaya kamātā hūm
I work and I earn money.


## 110 Oblique case

Whenever a noun is followed by a poslposition (for example, kō 5 , 'to'; kā V, 'of'; mēm ergative poslposition nē $<$ also takes the oblique case of nouns. (See Chapter 5 for information about postpositions; see $\$ 211$ for pronouns before nē.)

1 The term 'case' is used in this work to refer only to bound nominal suffixes (nominative, oblique and vocative) described below and in Chapter 2. Other grammarians treal grammatical postpositions (Chapter 5) as case markers. According to this school of thought, a noun followed by the ergative postposition $\overline{\mathrm{c}} \overline{\mathrm{e}}$ is in the ergative case; a noun followed by $\mathbf{k o}$ is in the dative case, and a noun with no postposition is in the nominative-accusative case.

## Oblique singular

Only masculine marked nouns have a special oblique singular suffix.
(a) The suffixes $-\bar{a}$ and $-\mathbf{a}$ (masculine marked) change to $-\overline{\mathrm{e}}$ :

If the suffix $-\overline{\mathrm{a}}$ is nasalized ( $-\overline{\mathrm{a}} \mathbf{m}$ ), the oblique suffix is nasalized as well.

$$
\text { كنوان } \leftarrow ~ \text { كنوئيU }
$$

(b) The suffix -aya (masculine marked) changes to $-\mathrm{ae} \sim-\overline{\mathrm{e}}$ :

$$
\text { روييم } \leftarrow ~ \text { رويئ كا ، روير }
$$

(c) Feminine nouns and unmarked masculine nouns do not change.

| \%هر | ghar $\rightarrow$ | ghar $\mathbf{k a ̄}$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| كلز | larki $\rightarrow$ | laṛkī kā |
| كتاب ז كتابكا | kitāb $\rightarrow$ | kitāb kā |

## Examples

> لگّكِ كا بهائى كراهِي بيي نـه -

## larkēkā bhāl karăcī mëń hai

The boy's brother is in Karachi (lit. the brother of the boy is in Karachi).

is kūēm kā pāni ṭhanḍā hai
The water of this well is cold.
گهر كاكرايـ تين بزار رويئـ نـي -
ghar kā kirāya tīn hazär rūpaē hai
The rent of the house is three thousand rupees.
كتاب كى قيمت دو سو رويئ بـا -
kitäb kī qīmat dō sau rūpaē hai
The price of the book is two hundred rupees.

## Oblique plural

All plural nouns have oblique suffixes (except Perso-Arabic nouns with borrowed Persian or Arabic plural, or dual, suffixes; $\S 1405 ; \S 1503-\S 1504)$. The oblique plural forms are derived from the nominative plural forms as shown below.
(a) The plural suffixes $\overline{\mathbf{e}}$ and -ēm change to $-\overline{\mathrm{o}} \dot{\mathrm{m}}$ :

| كلز | larkē $\rightarrow$ | larkōṁ kā |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| K | kamrē - | kamrōm k |
| كنوئيس | kūēèm $\rightarrow$ | -̄ōrn |
| رونِ | rüpe $\rightarrow$ | rūpōm kà |
| كتابيي | kitābēm | kitābōm kā |

(b) The plural suffix -īyāmं changes to -īyōm:

$$
\text { لزَّكيان } \leftarrow
$$

(c) The suffix -öm is added to the suffixless masculine unmarked forms:

$$
\text { گهر } \leftarrow \text { گهرون }
$$

## Examples


in küōm kā pānì thandā hai
The water of these wells is cold.
كهرول كـ كرائُ رختلف بين -
gharōn kē kiräē muxtalif haim
The houses have various rents (lit. rents of the houses are various).

larkiyŏm kā bhāī karācī mēm hai
The girls' brother is in Karachi (lit. the brother of the girls is in Karachi).
كتابول كى قيمتين بختلف بيU -
kitābṑn kī qīmatēen muxtalif haim
The books have various prices (lit. prices of the books are various).

## Table 2: Oblique case of nouns

| Singular | Nominative |  | Oblique |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Masc. markeo | 513 | laṛkā | [3] | larkē |
|  | 0 0, | kamra | $4{ }^{4} 5$ | kamrē |
|  | روبيه | rūpaya | روبئ ، رويّ | rüpaè, rūpē |
|  | كنوان | kūāṅ | كنونيّ | kūèm |
| Masc. unmarked | \%هر | ghar | \%ه8 | ghar |
| Fem. marked | 5 | lạki | لرى | larkī |
|  | هر | cirieã | جرّ | cirriyä |
| FEM. UNMARKEO | كتاب | kitäb | كتاب | kitab |

Plural
Nominative


111 Oblique nouns resulting from dropping of kō
The postposition kō, 'to', 'at' is often dropped in expressions describing movement to a destination. The noun remains in the oblique case. See $\S 507$.

Nouns in time expressions also appear in the oblique case. See $\S 1309, ~ § 1311$.

## 112 Expressing totality

Numbers, time words and the pronoun sab may occur in the oblique plural to express totality or an indefinitely large amount. In numbers 20 or lower, it tends to express totality; in higher numbers it expresses an indefinitely large amount.

The following words have special stems before-öm.

BASIC FORM
Stem before -ṑ
Stem plus -ōm


سو sau, hundred
sab, all

sabh ${ }^{-2}$

| دونول | dōnōm |
| :---: | :---: |
| سينكونو | saimikarōm |
| سبهو | sabhōm |

Totality

All five guests came.

أنهون ن سبهون كو بالايا unhōm̀ nē sabhōm̀ kō bulāyā He called every single one of them.

Indefinitely large amounts

سينكزون درخت
saimikarōm daraxt
hundreds of trees

وه گهنيُول روتى ربّى -
vo ghantọ̀n rṑtī rahī.
She went on crying for hours.

Totality may also be expressed by a phrase in the pattern: $\mathbf{X} \mathbf{k a} \mathbf{X}$, where $\mathbf{X}$ is a repeated noun, noun phrase or the pronoun sab. In this expression, the oblique plural is not used.

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { - }
\end{aligned}
$$

All six guests came.

särē kē särē daraxt jal gaē
Every last tree burned.

آك بيس جنگل كا جنگّل جل گيا àg mḕ jangal kā jangal jal gayā. The entire forest burned in the fire.

سب كا سب لُّل گیا -
sab kä sabluṭ gayā
Every last thing was looted.

## 113 Vocative case of nouns

The vocative singular suffix is identical with the oblique suffix. The vocative plural suffix is $-\overline{0} \mathrm{~g}$.

The vocative is used only towards persons or objects identified with persons, and does not occur very often. Vocatives may be introduced by the vocative


[^0]The nominative form of betta, 'son' is sometimes used in place of the vocative, addressing both boys and girls.

Table 3: Vocative case of nouns

| Singular | Nominative |  | Vocative |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Masc. markeo | [5] | laṛkā |  | lạ̧ex |
| Masc. unmarkeo | بهائى | bhāı | بهائى | bbā |
| Fem. markeo | لز5 | larkī | لركى | laraī |
| Fem. unmarkeo | بهن | bahen | بهن | bahen |
| Plural | Nominative |  | Vocative |  |
| Masc. markeo | 3/3 | larkē | 3/3 | larkō |
| Masc. unmarked | 680. | bhas | بهائيو | bhäiyō |
| Fem, marked | لزكى | larki | لزكيو | lậkiyō |
| Fem. unmarked | بهن | bahen | بهنو | bahnō |

Examples

| بيطّ ، لِدهر آؤ- | او ركشع والـ |
| :---: | :---: |
| bêter, idhar āō | ō riksê vāle! |
| Son, come here. | Orickshaw driver! |
| - بحّو ، سنو - | بهائيو اور بهنو ! |
| baccō, sunō | bbälyo aur bahno! ${ }^{3}$ |
| Listen, children. | Brothers and sisters! |

3 See 'Reduction of penultimate short vowels' uder $\S 107$ for loss of penultimate -a in bah (e)no.

## REPETITION OF NOUNS

## 114 Simple repetition

The doubling of nouns expresses variety or multiplicity.

is dukān mêm tarah tarah kē masālē miltē haim
Various kinds of spices are available in this shop.

bam nẽ faqī kō galī galī dhūrụ̣̀ā
We searched for the faqir in lane after lane.

115 Repetition with an echo word
Nouns (and other parts of speech) are sometimes repeated with a rhyming echo word, often one beginning with $\mathbf{v}-\mathrm{g}$. Echo words beginning with $\mathbf{v}$ - have no meaning of their own; their function is to generalize the meaning of the first word. Sometimes an echo word has a meaning of its own, but its independent occurrence is much less frequent than its occurrence in the compound.

```
چابیى وابی
cäbī väbi
something like a key (<cäbĭ, key)
```

دهوم دهام
dhūm dhām
pomp and show (< dhūm, pomp; dhăm, splendour)

## NOUNS AS UNITS OF MEASURE (116)

Nouns describing measure, quantity and price may behave like adjectives and precede the nouns they qualify. Used in this way, they are not followed by the possessive kā. Marked masculine measure nouns (camca, rūpaya) take plural suffixes when they denote a plural number. Feminine measure nouns (piyalī, bälṭ̣) do not.


```
pacās rūpaē mìtar
fifty rupees (a) metre
```

دو حمٌ
dō camcē cinìi
two spoons (of) sugar

| خار پیا | دو بالكُّى |
| :---: | :---: |
| câr piyălĭ cāe | dō bälṭ pānï |
| four cups (of) tea | two buckets (of) water |

However, if the noun is not used like an adjective, it inflects in the usual way:


I need two buckets of water (two different buckets, both containing water).
When nouns showing units of measure, time or money are preceded by numbers, they do not take the oblique plural suffix.

سو دفعـ سع زياده
sau dafa sē zyāda
more than one hundred times

maim dō ghantē mēm̄n̄āựn gì
I will come in two hours.
دو دنك بعد آنا
dō din kē bād ānā
Come after two days.
But:
كحچه دنوU كِ بعد آنا -
kuch dinōm kē bād ānā
Come after a few days.

## OTHER PARTS OF SPEECH USED AS NOUNS (117)

Many adjectives can also be used as nouns. See §319.
A few Perso-Arabic loanwords, including naujavān نوجوان, 'young man'; үairmulki غيردنلى , 'foreigner'; numāinda نمائنده , 'representative', and nouns denoting nationality, are classified as both nouns and adjectives. See $\S 319$.

Participles are essentially verbal adjectives. Both imperfect and perfect participles may be used as nouns (though it is infrequent). See $\S 906, \S 911$.

The infinitive is a verbal noun and is used as a noun in sentences. See $\$ 639$.

There is no distinction between the masculine and feminine genders in Urdu pronouns. The same pronoun is used for both 'he' and 'she' (the verb phrase often provides the information, however). There is on the other hand a distinction between proximate and distant in the third person: Urdu distinguishes between a 'he/she/it' which is close at hand, and a 'he/she/it' which is at a distance.

Urdu pronouns may refer to singular or plural people or things. Plural pronouns referring to people may refer to two or more people (grammatical plural), or to a single person respectfully (polite plural).

Like nouns, pronouns may occur in the nominative case (for example as subjects of sentences) or in the oblique case (followed by postpositions; $\S 208$ ). ${ }^{1}$

## DEMONSTRATIVE PRONOUNS

## 201 ye, 'this' and vo, 'that'

The demonstrative pronoun ye, 'this' refers to something or someone close at hand. The demonstrative pronoun vo, 'that' rcfers to something or someone further away. The dcmonstrative pronouns ye and vo are identical in form to the personal pronouns ye and vo (meaning 'he', 'she', 'it').

In the nominative case, the plural forms of ye and vo are identical to their singular forms. Only the verb shows whether the pronoun refers to a singular or plural noun.

## Examples

|  | ye kyā hai? | What is this? |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| \% | ye gharā h | This is a water pot. |
|  | ye kyā haim? | hat are these? |
| $\subset$ | ye |  |

In the oblique case, however, ye and vo have distinct singular and plural forms.

[^1]Nominative and oblique demonstratives

|  | Nominative | Oblique |  |
| :--- | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Singular | ي | ye | is |
|  | g | vo | us |
| Plural | ي | ye | us |
|  | g | vo | in |
|  |  |  | un |

## Examples

إس كا نام كيا بي ؟
is kā nām kyā hai?
What is the name of this?
انُ كو كيا كهت بي
un kō kyā kahtē haìm?
What do you call those?

أس كا نام كيا
us kā nām kyā bai? What is the name of that?
 ham in kō gharē kahtē haim We call these water pots.

The demonstrative pronouns also function as adjectives.
إس كنويُي كا يانى طُهندُ بـ -
is kuḕm kā pānī ṭhanḍā hai
The water of this well is cold.

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { يم گهرًا بُرا به - } \\
& \text { ye gharā barā hai } \\
& \text { This water pot is big. } \\
& \text { وه كنوان بهت گهرا بـ - } \\
& \text { vokuäñ bahut gahrā hai } \\
& \text { That well is very deep. }
\end{aligned}
$$

## PERSONAL PRONOUNS

## 202 Forms

Table 4: Persons and cases of personal pronouns

|  | Nominative |  | Oblique |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Singular |  |  |  |  |
| 1st person | "بيّ | maim, I | 800 | mujh |
| 2nd person | تو | tū, you | تجه8 | tujh |
| 3 rd person | 9 | vo, he, she, it | أس | us |
|  | $\sim$ | ye, he, she, it | ! | is |
| Plural |  |  |  |  |
| 1st person | - | ham, we | H0 | ham |
| 2nd person | تم | tum, you | - | tum |
|  | TT | āp, you | آپ | āp |
| 3rd person | و | vo, they | إن | un |
|  | ي | ye, they | إن | in |

## 203 Honorific levels in second person pronouns

There are three second person pronouns: tī, tum and ăp. The use of tū is very intimate, tum is non-honorific, and $\overline{\mathrm{a}}$ is honorific.
tu is used only when addressing a small child in one's own family, one's
beloved, God, as an insult, or as a reproof to a servant or subordinate. It occurs commonly in poetry (where according to convention, the poet addresses his beloved).
tum is used when addressing one or more persons of lower status, children, ت or close family members younger than oneself. Persons of equal status may address each other as tum in informal social situations. When addressing small children in another person's family, one should use tum, not tii.
${ }^{\text {ap }}$ is used when addressing one or more persons of higher status, persons
if to whom respect is due, or family members elder than onself. It is also used by young persons to elderly persons (even if the elder is a servant), to skilled persons (of all socio-economic ranks), and by parents to children, to teach them good manners. Finally, persons of equal status generally address each other as äp in formal social situations, such as an office or a formal event.
āp is also used as a third person polite plural pronoun meaning 'he', 'she'.

This is even more honorific than vo + plural verb, so is used to refer to persons to whom a high degree of respect is due (including revered religious personages, especially the Prophet Mohammad (PBUH)).

## Examples

## توكيا كها ربا بر ؟ سن كهول - <br> tū kyã khā rahā hai? mumih khōl

What are you eating? Open (your) mouth (to a very small child).
(تم) بيثهو -
(tum) baithō
(You) please sit down.
تم إتنى رات گُخ كهان جا ربى بو ؟
tum itnū rāt gaè kahāṃ jā rahī hō?
Where are you going so late at night (to a younger family member)?
آٓپ بيُهئ
$\stackrel{\rightharpoonup}{\bar{p}}$ baithiē
You please sit down (to an elder).

$\bar{a} p$ sē darxäst hai ke hamëḿn apnë fann sē navāzēm
He (an honoured poet) is requested to favour us with his art.

## 204 ham used as a first person singular pronoun

The first personal plural ham is sometimes colloquially used in place of the singular, maim. By referring to himself as a member of a group, the speaker makes himself slightly more anonymous. The use of ham may also reflect a person's assumption of social superiority or superior status. ham is also used in place of maim in poetry.

جو نهيِ جانتخ وفا كيا ني
ham kō un sē vafā kī hai ummīd
jō nahïm̉ jăntē vafā kyā hai
Ihope for loyalty from the one
Who does not know what loyalty is (Ghalib)

## 205 Omission of personal pronouns

Personal pronouns, especially tiu and tum, are often omitted in sentences, since the verb provides information about person, number, gender and level of respect.

```
كيا ك,
kyā kanō gē?
What will you (tum) do?
كياكر ربا بي ؟
kyā kar rahā hai?
What are you (tūi) doing? (reproof)
```

كياكري گِ
kyā karë̀n gẽ?
What will you (âp) do?
كل جاؤل
kal jāūm gā
I (maim) will go tomorrow.

## 206 log as a plural specifier

The noun log, 'people' may be added to plural personal pronouns to specify or emphasize plurality. The resulting phrase is masculine plural.

| نها لوگ (يّ) | ) | We (are) |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | tum lôg (hō) | You (are) |
|  | 10 g g (haim) | You (are) |
| (- | vo $\operatorname{logg~(haim)~}$ | They (are) |

207 Nominative pronouns
Nominative pronouns most commonly occur as the subjects of verbs (except for transitive verbs in perfect tenses, where the subject takes $n \overline{\mathrm{E}}(\$ 510, \S 629)$.

| بي يهي يهال ربتا بول maim yahāă rahtā hūm | تم كهال ربتخ بو ؟ tum kahämं rahte hō? |
| :---: | :---: |
| $I$ live here. | Where do you live? |
| وه هاس •هِي ربتا بی vo pās mēmé rahtā hai He lives nearby. |  vopās mēm rahtē hairn Theylive nearby. |

A nominative third person pronoun very occasionally occurs as the direct object of a sentence, referring to a thing.

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { mainin nē ye paṛhă hai, vo nah̄̄ín paṛã } \\
& \text { I have read this, not that. }
\end{aligned}
$$

## 208 Oblique (inflected) pronouns

Whenever a pronoun is followed by a postposition (for example, kō 5 , 'to' kā V, 'of', mēn بسي , 'in', sē as shown in the following examples.

The functions of location and direction, as well as many grammatical functions, are shown in Urdu by postpositions, described in Chapter 5.

The oblique case of the pronouns ham, tum and āp is identical to the nominative case.
-

Mr. Malik will give you tea to drink.

ham par zimmēdarī hai
The responsibility is ours (lit. on us).
The pronouns maim, tī, ye and vo, however, have distinct oblique case forms. See Table 5, p. 21.
-
malik sähih mujh kō cāē pilāēñ gē
Mr. Malik will give me tea to drink.

tujh kō nimid à hai, munnī?
Are you sleepy, child (lit. is sleep coming to you)?

unpar zimmēdārí hai
The responsibility is his/theirs (lit. on him/them).
إس هيي كوئى شك نهي -
is mēè kōī sak nahīm
There is no doubt about (lit. in) this.

[^2]
## 209 Exception to §208

First and second person pronouns occur in the nominative case before the postposition nē $<$. See $\$ 211$, Table 6.

## 210 The suffix $\overline{\mathbf{e}} \sim(\mathbf{h})$ ēm replacing kō

The postposition kō $\mathrm{S}_{\text {, 'to', 'at' shows (a) animate or specified direct objects }}$ and (b) indirect objects ( $\S 505$ ). Following pronouns (including personal, demonstrative, interrogative and relative pronouns, except app) it may be replaced by the suffix $\overline{\mathbf{e}} \sim(\mathrm{h})$ ëm. This usage is more common than the usage with kö, especially in the spoken language. Both usages are shown below in Table 5 .

Nore: the spelling with o (chōṭī hē) shown below is more common than spelling with $\&$ (dō casmī hē), except in mujh, tujh. But all the alternate forms can also be spelled with $\otimes$.

Table 5: Oblique pronouns + alternate forms of kō

$$
\text { PRONOUN }+ \text { kō }
$$

Pronoun + $\overline{\mathbf{e}} \sim$ (h)ēm
Singular

| 1st person | سه8 | mujh kō | - | mujhē |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 2nd person | تجه كو | tujh kō | تجهـ | tujhè |
| 3rd person | أس كو | us kō | - | usē |
|  | إس كو | is $k \bar{o}$ | ! | ises |
| Plural |  |  |  |  |
| 1st person | بهr كو | ham kō | ب\% | hamēm |
| 2nd person | ت\% ك\% | tum kō | تمهيu - تهيט | tumhēè |
|  | آبك | $\overline{\text { app }} \mathrm{k} \overline{0}$ |  | - |
| 3rd person | أنهكو | un kō | أُنهي ~ أُنهي | unhēm |
|  | إن كو | in $\mathbf{k o}$ | إنهيي ~ إنهين | inhḕn |

## Examples


xursid sāhih mujhẽ cāē pilāāe haim

Mr. Khurshid gives me tea to drink (lit. gives tea to me).
دلِ نادان، تجهـ بوا كيا بي
dile-nādām̀, tujhē hūā kyā hai
Foolish heart, what has happened to you (Gbalib)

kyä tunhhēṃ kuch căhiē?
Do you need anything (is anything needed to you)?
آت ن اُنهيu كيا بتايا ؟
äp nē unhēñ kyā batāyä?
What did you tell them?

## 211 Pronouns before the postposition nē

When pronouns occur as the subjects of sentences, the sentence verbs agree with them in gender, number and person. There is an exception to this rule: the subjects of transitive verbs in perfect tenses agree with the direct object, and the subject is followed by the postposition ne (see $\S 510, \S 629$ ). When followed by $\mathrm{n} \overline{\mathrm{e}}$, first and second person pronouns occur in the nominative case. Third person singular pronouns occur in the oblique case. Third person plural pronouns have special forms which occur only before née.

Table 6: Forms of pronouns before nē

|  | Nominative |  | Pronoun + nê |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Singular |  |  |  |  |
| 1st person | N" | maim, I | بين | maimin nē |
| 2 nd person | تو | tuil, you | تون | tū nè |
| 3 rd person | -9 | vo, he, she, it | إسِ نِ | us nē |
|  | ي | ye, he, she, it | إس | is ne |
| Plural |  |  |  |  |
| 1st person | \% | ham, we | \% | ham nē |
| 2 nd person | تم | tum, you | \% | tumnẽ |
| 3rd person | Tآپ | āp, you | آ1 | āp nē |
|  | 09 | vo, they | إنهون نـ | unhōm ne ${ }^{-3}$ |
|  | يه | ye, they | إنهون | inhōm nē |

[^3]
## Examples

- بين نـ رلـى صاحب كو چائُ پلائى maim nē malik sāhib kō cāe pilaì
I gave Mr. Malik tea to drink.
تم نـ بازار سح كيا خريدا ؟
tum nē bāzār sē kyā xarídā?
What did you buy in (from) the market?
آپ ن سزک ير كيا ديكها ؟
āp nē sarak par kyā dēkhā?
What did you see on the road?
نمه نـ اونُّون كا كاروان ديكها -
ham nē ūṃṭōn kā kărvām̉ dēkhā
Wesaw a caravan of camels.

us nēūṃ̣̀ par savārī ki
He rode on a camel.

unhṑm nē ūrnṭ par savārī ki
They rode on a camel.


## 212 Possessive forms of personal pronouns

The possessive forms of pronouns are grammatically adjectives, and agree with the nouns they qualify. The possessives are shown in Table $7 \mathrm{on} \mathrm{p} 24.$.

The possessives are marked ( $\S 301$ ): they have suffixes that inflect to show gender and number.

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { mērā bhā̄, my brother } \\
& \text { - mērì bahen, my sister } \\
& \text { mērè vālidain, my parents } \\
& \text { us kā bhāā, his/her brother } \\
& \text { اُس كى بهن نی us kī bahen, his/her sister } \\
& \text { أس كـح والدين us kē vallidain, his/her parents }
\end{aligned}
$$

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { تمهارا بهائى tumhāāa bhā, your brother } \\
& \text { تمهارى بهن } \\
& \text { تمهها رابر والدين }
\end{aligned}
$$

Table 7: Possessive forms of personal pronouns

|  | Nominative |  | Possessive |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Singular |  |  |  |  |
| 1st person | U* | maim, I | بير\| | mērā |
| 2nd person | تو | tü, you | تيرا | têrā |
| 3rd person | و | vo, he, she, it | أس | us kā |
|  | ي | ye, he, she, it | إس | is $\mathbf{k} \bar{a}$ |
| Plural |  |  |  |  |
| 1st person | ¢ | ham, we | بهارا | hamārā |
| 2nd person | تم | tum, you | تمهار1 | tumhārā |
|  | آب\% | āp, you | آپ\% | āp kā |
| 3rd person | هو | vo , they | أنٌ | un kā |
|  | ی | ye, they | إن | in kā |

## REFLEXIVE PRONOUNS

## 213 The reflexive possessive adjective apnä

The possessive adjective apnā, 'one's own' is substituted for the possessive forms of personal pronouns when the subject of the sentence possesses the object. apnā agrees with the noun it qualifies.

احمد النَ گهر
ahmad apni gharị dēkh rahā hai
Ahmad is looking at his (own) watch.
احمد أُس كى گهرُى ديكه وبا بـ -
ahmad us ki gharịi dēkh rahā hai
Ahmad is looking at his (someone else's) watch.

ham apnê̈ ghar mēm rahtē haim
We live in our (own) house.

maim apnī kitāb paŗb rahā hūrn
I am reading my (own) book.
WRONG $\quad-\quad$ maimim mērì kitāb paṛh rahā hūm
WRONG $\quad$ - irn hamārē ghar mēmin rahtē haim
apnā can also be used after possessives for emphasis:

- يم بيرى إينى گار
ye mêrī apnī gạại hai
This is my own car.

214 xud and āp, 'self'
Both xud and āp mean $X$-self (myself, yourself, himself, ourselves, themselves, etc.). xud is the commoner of the two.

- بيي خود
maim xud dāktar sē bāt kamā cāhtā hūṃ
I want to speak to the doctor myself.

maina àp vahāmín gayā
I went there myself.


## 215 apnē āp, xud, xud baxud

To express something that someone does by himself, without help from others, or something that happens spontaneously, apnē āp or xud may be used.

ham nē apnē āp ye pul marammat kiyā
We repaired this bridge by ourselves.
بتم نـ خود يم پل مرتّت كيا -
ham nē xud ye pul marammat kiyā
We repaired this bridge by ourselves.

bijlī apnē̃āp jal uthin
The electric bulb suddenly lit up by itself.
xud baxud, 'of one's own accord' may be used with intransitive verbs to express 'by himself', 'by itself', etc.
-بجلى خود بخخود جل أُنهـي
bijlī xud baxud jal uṭhì
The electric bulb suddenly lit up by itself.

## 216 āpas mēm̀, 'among'

Something people do 'among' themselves (reciprocally) is expressed by ãpas mērin

لوگ آپس بيى بات كر ربي تهـ -
lōg ăpas mḕn băt kar rahē thē
The people were talking among themselves.

## INTERROGATIVE PRONOUNS

## 217 kyā, 'what?'

kyā means 'what' (referring to things). It is also used as an adjective qualifying a noun, especially before oblique case nouns, where it means 'which' ( $\$ 220$ ).
kyä shares its oblique case with kaun. See $\S 220$, Table 8.
Interrogative words usually come right before the verb. See $\S 1006$.

يركيا بي 9
ye kyă haim?
What is this?
What are these?
آٓپ
āp kē dōst kā kyā nām hai?
What is your friend's name?

## 218 kyä̀ marking questions and exclamations

kyă may also be used as a question marker, turning a statement into a yes-or-no question. It is not translated.

[^4]kyā may introduce an exclamatory sentence.
\[

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { كيا بزيداركهانا بـا } \\
& \text { kyā mazēdär khānā hai! } \\
& \text { What delicious food (it is)! }
\end{aligned}
$$
\]

## 219 kaun, 'who?'

kaun means 'who?'. It is occasionally also used as an adjective, qualifying a noun. The singular and plural froms of kaun are distinguished only in the oblique case. In the nominative case, log, 'people' may be added to specify the plural, or kaun may be doubled ( $\$ 225$ ).

```
~
darvāzē par kaun hai?
Who is at the door?
ي\mp@code{\}
ye lög kaun haimi?
Who are they (these people)?
< <
ye kawn hai?
Who is he/she?
```



```
kaun săhib böl rahē haimim?
Who is speaking (sir)?
```

220 Obllque forms of kyā and kaun
The oblique and plural forms of the interrogative pronouns are shown in Table 8. Like vo and ye, kyā and kaun have special oblique plural forms which occur only before nē. kyā and kaun may take the alternate suffixal forms of kō (§210):


Table 8: Oblique and plural forms of kyā and kaun

|  | Nominative | Oblique | $+\mathrm{ne}$ |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Singular |  |  |  |  |
| كيا | kyă, what? | س kis | كس نز | kis nē |
| كون | kaun, who? | كس kis | كس نك | kis nē |
| Plural |  |  |  |  |
|  | kyā, what? | ن kin | - | - |
| كون | kaun, who? | ن kin | كنهوU | kinhōm n ē |

## Examples

بـ ساسان كس كا
ye sāmān kis kā hai?
Whose baggage is this (lit. of whom is this baggage)?

ye ṭikat kin kē haim?
Whose tickets are these (lit. of whom are these tickets)?
ساهـان يهال كس ن چهورfا ؟
sămān yahām kis nē chōrā?
Who left the luggage here?
The oblique forms of kyā occur mainly as adjectives, meaning 'which'.
آپپ كس دفتر بيي كام كرتٍ بيى ؟
āp kis daftar mḕ̀ kām kartē haim?
Which office do you work in?

ye kin kamrồm kī cäbīyāṃ haim?
(For) which rooms are these the keys?
However 'which' (of a finite number of possibilities) is usually expressed by adding the adjectival particle sā ( $\sim$ sī $\sim$ sē) to kaun ( $\S 310$ ).

```
كون ساكمبره خالى بی ؟
kaun sä kamra xāli hai?
Which room is vacant?
```


## INDEFINITE PRONOUNS

221 kōī, 'some(one)', ‘any(one)'
$k \bar{o} \bar{i}$ is used both as a pronoun and an adjective. As a pronoun, it means 'someone', 'anyone'. If the sentence is negative, it means 'no one'.

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { دروازبـ } \\
& \text { darvāzē par kōī hai }
\end{aligned}
$$

گهر ير كوئى نهسي -
There is someone at the door.
ghar par kōi nahìm
No one is at home.

As an adjective, kōī means 'some', 'any' and qualifies only count nouns. If the sentence is negative, it means ' $n o$ ', 'not any'.

كيا يهان كوئى يُيكسى بلا گی
kyã yahāñ kō̄ taiksi milē gī?
Is any taxi available here?

- بيره پاس كوئى تصوير ( تصويرين) نهيي -
mērē pās kō̈ tasvir (tasvīrḕn) nahīm
I have no picture(s).
The oblique form of kō̄̄ is kisīi. kisīi is also the form used before nē.
kisī kē päs daulat hai, kisī kē pās kuch bhī nahīm hai
Somehave wealth, (and) some have nothing at all.
پيسب كسى نـ خِرا لW -
paisa kisī nē curā liyā.
Someone stole the money.


## 222 kuch, 'some(thing)', 'any(thing)'

kuch, 'some(thing)', 'any(thing)' is used both as a pronoun and an adjective. As a pronoun, it means 'something'. If there is a negative word in the sentence, it means 'nothing', 'not anything'. kuch does not have an oblique form.

```
كرّ8 كرو ؛ يار !
kuch karō, yär!
Do something, pal!
```

As an adjective it means 'some', 'any' and qualifies both non-count nouns and plural count nouns. With count nouns, kuch + negatrve means 'not some of (something)'.

وه كتج نهـ
vo kuch nahīm karē gā
He won't do anything.

كجه یانى لاؤ-
kuch pānī lāō
Bring some water.
-
kuch dēr bād āiye ${ }^{-4}$
Please come after some time (a little later).

kuch tasvirrëñ mēz par haim
There are some pictures on the table/some of the pictures are on the table.

us kē pās kuch pānī bacā hūā thā
He had saved some of the water (he had some water which had been saved).
kuch does not qualify uncount nouns in negative sentences.

| WRONG | - كتج - | kuch pānī nahìm |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| CORRECT | - | pānī nahīrin There's no water |

## RELATIVE PRONOUN

223 jō
The relative pronoun corresponding to vo and ye is jō $\underset{\mathrm{o}}{\mathrm{o}}$, 'who', 'which'. See §1106-§1107.

## REPEATED PRONOUNS

## 224 kyā kyä

When kyā is doubled, it means 'what (various) things?', and takes a singular verb.

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { آي ن وبان كياكيا ديكها ؟ } \\
& \text { āp nē vahāṁ kyā kyā dēkhā? } \\
& \text { What things did you see there? }
\end{aligned}
$$

## 225 kaun kaun

When kaun is doubled, it means 'which (various) people?', and takes a singular verb.

[^5]دعوت سين كون كون آيا ؟
dāvat mēm kaun kaun āyā?
Which various people came to the party?

## 226 kōī kōi, kōī na kōī

kōī kōī means 'a few'.
جلس بيي صرف كوئى كوئى آيا ـ
jalsē mēmi sirf kō̄ kō̄ āyā
Only a few came to the meeting.
kōī na kōī means 'someone (or the other)'.
كوئى نح كوئى گهر پر بو گا -
kōì na köīghar par hō gà
Someone must be at home.
كسي ن كسبى كو نعلوم بو گا ـ
kisī na kisī kō mãlüm hō gă
Someone must know it.

## 227 kuch kuch, kuch na kuch

kuch kuch means 'somewhat'.
و0 ك
vo kuch kuch thik hai
He is somewhat better.
kuch na kuch means 'something (or the other)'.

is vàqea kē pīchē kuch na kuch zarür hō gā
Something is certainly at the bottom of (behind) this event.

## MARKING

Adjectives qualify nouns, as modifiers, or as predicate complements. Like nouns, adjectives are divided into two groups: those which have suffixes that change to show gender and number (marked adjectives), and those which do not (unmarked adjectives).

## 301 Marked adjectives

Adjectives which may take the masculine singular suffixes-ā 1 or -ām 1 are marked.

| الحّها كا | دايان باته |
| :---: | :---: |
| acchākām (m.) | däyạ̄ hāth (m.) |
| a good job | the right hand |

These suffixes change to agree with the noun which the adjective qualifies (§303-§304).

| اجّهى بات | دائين آنكه |
| :---: | :---: |
| acchî bât (f.) |  |
| a good thing | the right eye |

## 302 Unmarked adjectives

Unmarked adjectives have no special suffixes and do not change to show agreement.

| دلجֶسپ كا | دلجֶسِّ بات |
| :---: | :---: |
| dilcasp kām | dilcasp bāt |
| interesting work | an interesting thing |

Some adjectives look like marked adjectives, but are not. In the examples which follow, tāza $\quad$ تأز and zinda jere Persian adjectives which end in -a o (cbōtī $h \bar{e}$ ). Whereas nouns ending in -a $\circ$ are treated as marked nouns, and change to show number and case ( 8103 ), adjectives ending in -a 0 do not change.

تازه كيل
tāza kêlä (m.)
a fresh banana

تازه خوبانى
tàza khūbănī (f.)
a fresh apricot

Persian past participles ending in -a 0 are unmarked adjectives in Urdu.

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { تعليم يأفتر خاتون } \\
& \text { tâlīm yāftaxātūn (f.) } \\
& \text { an educated lady }
\end{aligned}
$$

Many adjectives are formed from nouns, or from other adjectives, by adding the adjectival suffix $-\mathbf{i} \mathcal{\checkmark}$, which may be of Persian origin, or an indigenous Urdu suffix. In either case, the suffix does not change.

```
ديسى گ%ى 
dēsi ghì (m.)
indigenous clarified butter, 'desi ghee' (< dēs دیس , country)
د ديسى خوبانى (
dêsi khübānĭ (f.)
an indigenous apricot
دفترى ک
daftari kăm (m.)
officialwork (< daftar دفق, office)
لاز\mp@code{N بأت}
läzimi bāt (f.)
essential thing (< lāzim لا لע, necessary)
```

Arabic adjectives which happen to end in $\overline{\mathbf{a}}(\mathrm{N}, ~ \mathrm{\varepsilon} \cdot \mid)$ or $\overline{\mathrm{i}}(\mathrm{v})$ are unmarked: āāā 'اعلى 'high'; muttalā băqī باتى, 'remaining'; jări جارى , جا 'continuing'.

```
اعلى'
âlā mēyăr (m.)
a high standard
```

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { اعلى' سطع } \\
& \text { ālāsatah (f.) } \\
& \text { a high level }
\end{aligned}
$$

```
bāqū paisa (m.)
the rest of the money (remaining money)
```


numāis aglē haftè bhī jāri rahē gi
The exhibition is continuing next week too.

## AGREEMENT

## 303 Agreement in gender and number

Marked adjectives change to agree with nouns in gender and number.

Table 9: Gender and number suffixes of adjectives

| Masculine | Singular |  | Plural |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | بؤا | barā | بُكـ | barè |
|  | دايان | dāyām | دائين | dāề̇ |
| Feminine | برّى | baçi | برُى | baṛi |
|  | دائيس | dãıı̀ | دائين | dàm |

(a) The suffix $-\overline{\mathrm{a}} \mid$ (m. sg.) changes to $-\overline{\mathrm{c}}<$ (m. pl.) or $\overline{\mathrm{I}} \mathcal{E}$ (f. sg., f. pl.):

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { گֶ } \quad \text { gahrā pānū, deep water (m.) }
\end{aligned}
$$

(b) There is only one feminine suffix for both singular and plural.
barrīghọ̄iyāām, big mares
 comprises mainly the words däyăm, 'right', and bäyäm̀, 'left'; and the ordinal numbers. Note the -y-in däy-, bāy-disappears when the adjective is feminine or masculine plural.

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { پ̄āṅcvāám bāb, the fifth chapter } \\
& \text { پֶانچويى جلد } \\
& \text { دايان باته dāyāṃ hāth, the right hand } \\
& \text { daäinn taraf, the right side }
\end{aligned}
$$

## 304 Agreement in case ${ }^{1}$

An adjective qualifying an oblique noun also becomes oblique.
Table 10: Case suffixes of adjectives

|  | Nominative |  | Oblique |  | Vocative |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Masculine | بايان | barā đāyām | بائين | barē <br> dāēén | بأئيب | barēe <br> dāēñ |
| Feminine | برُى | barị | برّى | baçi | برّى | baṇi |
|  | دائين | dāım | دائيى | dāıı̇ | دائيّ | dāıì |

(a) The suffix $-\bar{a} 1$ (m. sg.) changes to $\bar{\varepsilon}$ 人 , and the suffix -ām changes to
 oblique, vocative or feminine.

$$
\begin{aligned}
& 1 \text { V bareā ghōrē kā, of a big horse } \\
& \text { دائيي باتهر ير dāēén häth par, on the right hand } \\
& \text { barẽ zulm sē, with great cruelty }
\end{aligned}
$$

(b) Feminine adjectives do not change (they have no special oblique suffix).

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { V }
\end{aligned}
$$

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { pämicvīm manzil par, on the fifth floor }
\end{aligned}
$$

[^6](c) There are no special oblique plural suffixes for masculine or feminine adjectives.
\[

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { barē ghōrōmin kā, of big horses }
\end{aligned}
$$
\]

(d) An adjective modifying a vocative noun is in the oblique case.

|  | mêrē bêtẹ! | My son! |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| بيرى بير بيثو ! | mērē bettọ! | My sons! |
| 'بيرى بيثى ! | mêrí bệị! | My daughter! |
| اربه دإئيل لزا | arč dāēm̀ larkê! | Hey, you (boy) on the right! |

## 305 Agreement with noun sequences of different gender

If two or more nouns of different genders or numbers are qualified by one adjective (or the adjectival postposition $\mathbf{k} \overline{\mathbf{a}}$ ), the adjective agrees with the noun nearest to it.

بيرى ريّلون ، جوتح اور جراب
mērī patlūn (f.), jūtē (m. pl.) aur jurrāb (m. pl.)
my trousers, shoes and socks

barā patilā (m.) aur kaṛähī (f.)
a big saucepan and frying pan
آپ كى والده اور تينون مامون
äp kī vālida aur tīnōm māmū̀n
your mother and all three maternal uncles

## 306 Attributive and predicative adjectives

Some adjectives can both precede the noun they qualify (attributive use of adjectives), or follow it in a predicate phrase. When adjectives are used attributively they modify or restrict the meaning of the noun.

[^7]نزيداركهانا
mazēdār khān̄ā
delicious food (which satisfies taste as well as hunger)
When adjectives are used predicatively, they introduce new information about the noun or pronoun they qualify, which precedes the adjective.

وه زاستش خطرناك تها -
vo rāsta xatarnäk thā
That road was dangerous.
كهانا مزيدار بو
khān̄ā mazēdār hō gā
The food will be delicious.
Some Persian and Arabic adjectives can only be used predicatively, not attributively. These adjectives occur in phrases with the verb hōnā, 'to be' (see §607, 'Denominative verbs'). Some examples are:
پیعلوم بونا
mālūm hōn̄̄̆, to be known
pasand hōnā, to be liked, pleasing
mubtalā hōnā, to be afflicted, to be embroiled

us kē ghar kã pata mujhē mãlüm hai
I know his home address (his home address is known to me).

- وحيد صاحب كو بريانى پسند
vahīd sähab kō biryăñ̄ pasand hai
Vahid likes the rice cooked in broth (the biryānī is pleasing to Vahid).

baccī haizē mḗn mubtalā hō kar mar gaī
The baby girl caught (became afflicted with) cholera and died.

| Wrong | ربعلوم | mālüm pata |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| WRONG | קسند بريانى | pasand biryān̄ |
| Wrong | هبتِل> بحّ | mubtală baccī |

## Other Perso-Arabic adjectives may be used attributively:

$$
\begin{array}{cc}
\text { حسسين عورت نكت } & \text { hasīn aurat, the beautiful woman } \\
\text { muskil nuktē, the difficult points }
\end{array}
$$

Some predicative adjectives occur in a construction with $\mathbf{k} \bar{a}(\sim \mathbf{k} \overline{\mathbf{e}} \sim \mathbf{k} \mathbf{\overline { i }})$ :
شاك شكر گزار بونا
(kā) Sukr guzār hōnā, to be grateful (to)
Example

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { بي آپ كا شكر گزار بون ـ } \\
& \text { maim āp kā sukr guzārhūm } \\
& \text { I am grateful to you. }
\end{aligned}
$$

پابند بونا (kTā) pāband hōnā, to be bound by, abide by

Example

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { maim apnē vādē kā pāband hūm } \\
& \text { I keep (am bound by) my promise. }
\end{aligned}
$$

## PRONOUNS USED AS ADJECTIVES

## 307 Interrogative pronouns

The interrogative pronouns kyā, 'what' (§217) and kaum, 'who?' (\$219) are also used as adjectives.

## 308 Indefinite pronouns

The indefinite pronouns kōi, 'some', 'any' (\$221) and kuch 'some', 'any' (\$222) are also used as adjectives.

## SYMMETRICAL $y-v-k-j$ WORD SETS

## 309 The categories: NEAR - far - Interrogative - relative

Urdu distinguishes systematically between the categories 'near', 'far', 'interrogative' and 'relative'.

In §201, it is shown that the demonstrative pronoun ye refers to something or someone close at hand. The demonstrative pronoun vo refers to something or someone further away. This distinction is also maintained in personal pronouns, and in certain adjectives and adverbs describing the quantity, manner, location, direction, or time of something. When interrogatives and relatives are taken into account, there are four categories, expressed in symmetrical sets of words
beginning with $\mathbf{y} \sim \mathbf{i} \sim \mathbf{a}$ (near), $\mathbf{v} \sim \mathbf{u}$ (far), $\mathbf{k}$ (interrogative), and $\mathbf{j}$ (relative). These sets are shown below in Table 11.

The adjective members of this set (excluding jaisă and jitnã) are described in detail in this chapter. jaisā and jitnā, along with other relative words (the $\mathbf{j}$-set), are discussed in Chapter 11.

Table 11: Symmetrical $\mathbf{y}$ - $\mathbf{- k}-\mathrm{k}-\mathrm{j}$ word sets

| $\underset{\text { Near }}{\substack{\text { y }-\mathrm{i}-\mathrm{a} \\ \text { I }}}$ | v~u $F_{\text {AR }}$ | $k$ <br> interrogative | j Relative |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Pronouns |  |  |  |
| ye, he/she/it | $\stackrel{\text { ghe/she/it }}{\text { vo, he/ }}$ | $\underset{\text { kaun, who }}{\text { كون }}$ | $\mathrm{j} \overline{\mathrm{a}}$, who, which |
|  |  | kyā, what |  |

Adjectives

| إتنا | ا'تنا | كتنا |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| itnä, this much | utnā, that much | kitoā, how much | jitoā, as much |
| ايسا | ويسا | كيسا | جيس |
| aisā, like this | vaisa, like that | kaisä, how | jaisā, such as |

Adverbs

يهساU
yahăm், here
إدهر
idhar, hither
يوus
yūm, thus
با

| وبان |  |
| :---: | :---: |
| vahăm, there | kahāṃ, where |

أدهر
udhar, thither
تيول
(tyüm) so, thus
(tab, then²)
كدهر
kidhar, whither
Kyōḿ, why?
kab, when

جهاט jahăm̆, where
جدهر jidhar, whither
jah, when

[^8]Pronouns, except for $\mathbf{j} \mathbf{0}$, are handled in Chapter 2, including demonstrative pronouns ( $\$ 201$ ), personal pronouns ( $\$ 202-\S 212$ ) and interrogative pronouns ( $\$ 217, \S 219$ ). jo is discussed in $\S 1106-\S 1107$.

The adverb members of the set are discussed in Chapter 4 (Adverbs).

## itnā - utnā - kitnā

itnā means 'this much', 'so much'. utn̄̄ans means 'that much', 'so much'. The plurals, itnē and utnē mean 'this many', 'that many', 'so many'. kitmã means 'how much'; the plural kitnē means 'how many'. They are all regularly behaving marked adjectives.

All these words may also be used as adverbs (§318), and itnā is used idiomatically as a noun (§319).

إتنى بلدى كافى
itni haldī kāfi hai
This much turmeric is enough
! اتنخ لوگوU كى گنجائش نهيى (مب) -
itnēlōgōmin kī gunjāís nahīm (hai)
There isn't room for so many people.

āp kē pās kitoā kām hai?
How much work do you have?
سنشي كَ پاس كتنى دستاويزي بيى ؟
munsi kē pās kitnī dastāvēzēñ haińn?
How many documents/deeds does the clerk have?
aisā - vaisā - kaisā
aisā means 'such', 'like this', 'of this kind'. vaisä means 'such', 'like that', 'of that kind'. kaisā means 'what kind?', 'how?' They are all regularly behaving marked adjectives.

The masculine oblique singular cases of aisä, vaisā and kaisä can also be used as adverbs of manner, meaning 'like this/that', 'how', 'such as' (§412).
maim aisā kām nahīm̀ karnā cähtā
I don't want to do such a thing (a deed like this).

ويسا لباس بهان نهيى ملتا -
vaisā libās yahām nahīm miltā
You can't get such clothing here.

vo kaisā ādmī hai?
What kind of person is he?
آپ
āp kī tabīat kaisī hai?
How do you feel (lit. how is your disposition)?

## ADJECTIVE PHRASES FORMED WITH sā AND vālā

310 The adjectival particle sā ( $\sim$ sē $\sim$ sī)
sā is added to an adjective, noun or pronoun to form an adjectival phrase. sā agrees with the noun which the phrase qualifies.

## sä added to adjectives

When sā follows an adjective, it expresses approximation or diminution.
آج بهت سح لوگ آّن بيى -
âj bahut $\operatorname{sē} \log$ äē haim
Rather a lot of people have come today.
Compare آج بهت لوگ آئُ بين -
āj bahut $\log \mathrm{g}$ āe haim
A lot of people have come today.

thörī sic cāe dijiee
Please give me a little tea (thọ̣̄ī cāe is not idiomatic).
الجّ
acchī sī xabar
rather good news, goodish news
Compare

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { خcchix xabar } \\
& \text { goodnews }
\end{aligned}
$$

كالا سا بادل
kāāā sä bādal
a blackish cloud (not completely black)

## Compare <br> كاللا بادل kāā bădal a black cloud

However if sā is added to an adjective of size, such as barāa, 'big', or chōtā, 'small'; or to itnā, 'this much', 'this many', the adjective is intensified. sat also intensifies zarä, '(a) little'.

macchar chöṭ̆ sï ciz hai, magar nuqsän bahut kartī hai
A mosquito is a very small thing, but it does a lot of harm.

vo itnī sī cāē mēm kitrū zyāda ciniö dāltā hai!
What a lot of sugar he puts in such a small amount of tea!
ذرا سي ديركى لئـ -
zarā sī dēr kē liē
for a very little while
sā may be added to participles.
وبال كحجه بلتا بوا سا نظر آيا -
vahāṃ kuch hiltā hūā sā nazar āyā
I could make out something moving there.

## sā added to nouns and pronouns

Following a noun or personal pronoun, s̄̄ais is similar to jaisā, 'like'. Personal pronouns will be in the oblique case. Nouns may be in the nominative or oblique case, with different nuances in the meaning of sā.


```
un sāādmï risvat khāē gā!
Would a man like him accept a bribe!
```

فرشتر سا إنسان
farista sā insān
a person like an angel
Also

$$
\begin{array}{ll}
\text { فرشتخ سا ! فنسان } & \text { فرشتn جيسا إنسان } \\
\text { faristē sā insān } & \text { farista jaisāinsān } \\
\text { an angelic person } & \text { a person like an angel }
\end{array}
$$

sā may be added to nominative case demonstrative pronouns (not personal pronouns), to direct attention to a particular object.
Give me those bangles.

## $k \bar{a}$ sā + noun

kā sā specifies a following noun, similarly to (kī) tarah $\mathbf{k} \overline{\mathbf{a}}+$ Noun

us kī sī ainak āp kō lāhaur mēm nahīm milè gi
You won't find glasses like those in Lahore.
Compare

## kaun + sā

kaun sā expresses 'which' (out of a finite number of possibilities).
كون سا طالب علم غير حاضر بـ
kaun sā tälib ilm үair häzir hai?
Which student is absent (in a particular class)?
Compare
كون طالب علم غير حاضر بی ؟
kaun tālib ilm үair hāzir hai?
Is any student absent? (rhetorical question)

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { اُس طرح كى عينكـ آپ كو لآيور مبي نههي بـلـ گى - } \\
& \text { us tarah ki ainak āp kō lāhaur mēm nahïm mile gi } \\
& \text { You won't find glasses like those in Lahore. }
\end{aligned}
$$

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { وه سیى چورُيال دينا - } \\
& \text { vo sī cüṛiyăḿn dēnã }
\end{aligned}
$$

## 311 The suffix vālā

The suffix vā̄̄̄ forms adjective and noun phrases. vālā may follow an oblique infinitive, oblique noun or an adjective or adverb.

## Oblique infinitive $+\boldsymbol{v a ̄} \overline{\mathbf{a}}$

The construction obluque infintive + vāā has a range of meanings, and is discussed in detail in $\$ 645$. vālā agrees with the noun it qualifies.

گيت گان والى لروّى كون يه ؟
git gānē vā̄ī laṛk kaun hai?
Who is the girl singing the song?

## Oblique noun + vāĪ̄

When vāā follows an oblique noun, it makes an adjective phrase, which agrees with the noun it qualifies.

نيلِ كرت والا آدسى كون بی ؟
nīlè kurtē vàlā àdmī kaun hai?
Who is the man with the blue kurta (loose shirt)?

yürap mḕn mujassamōm̀n vāle bā bahut haim
In Europe there are many parks with statues.
In some cases, the modified noun may be omitted, leaving the Noun + väla phrase to function as a noun.

نيل كرتـ والالا كون نير
nin̄ē kurté vālā kaun hai?
Who is the one with the blue kurta (loose shirt)?

## Occupational nouns with vālā

Occupational nouns formed with vālă are very common.

ركشع والا
埐
بان والا
پوليس والا
riksē vāā, rickshaw driver (< riksā ركشا, rickshaw)

pān vālā, seller of betel-leaf (<pän
pölis vālā, policeman (< pölīs يوليس, , police)

## Adjective + vālā

In the spoken idiom (but not in standard written Urdu), vālā sometimes follows an adjective, making an adjective phrase that focuses on an aspect of the noun which is qualified, and excludes nouns which do not possess that aspect. Both the adjective and vālă agree with the noun.

بمارا دفتر اونجّى والنى عمارت ميى يه -
hamārā daftar ūmcī vālīimārat mēṃ hai
Our office is in the tall building (not one of the low ones).
In the written language, this would be:

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { hamārā daftar üm̀cici imārat mēm̉ hai } \\
& \text { Our office is in the tall building. }
\end{aligned}
$$

## Adverb + vālă

vāāa also makes adjective phrases from adverbs. (See $\S 409$ for the use of oblique adjectives like nīcē and sāmnē as adverbs.)

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { كل والى رويُيان يرندول كو كهالا دو - } \\
& \text { kal vālī rợṭyăm̀ parindōm kō khilā dō } \\
& \text { Feed yesterday's bread to the birds. }
\end{aligned}
$$

- نيح والا كمره خالى
nīcē vālà kamra xălī hai
The downstairs room is vacant.


## REPEATED ADJECTIVES

## 312 Simple repetition

The doubling of adjectives usually intensifies them, but may also express distributiveness. (For doubled kyă see §224.)

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { thandā thanḍā pānī } \\
& \text { ice-cold water }
\end{aligned}
$$


is manḍ̄̄ mēm kisăn dür dür sè apnī paidāvār lātē haim
Farmers bring their produce from far and wide to this market.
Sometimes distributiveness is the dominant sense.

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { سب این الین گهر گئ - } \\
& \text { sab apnē apnē ghar gaē }
\end{aligned}
$$

Everyone went to his own home.
جيلر ن قيديول كو دو دو روئيان ديي -
jēlar nē qaidiyṑn kō dō dō rōṭyyām dị̀m
The jailer gave two pieces of bread to each prisoner.

## 313 Repetition with an echo word

Sometimes the repetition is made with an echo word. The resulting compound is more intensive than the simple word, but the precise meaning must be looked up in a dictionary.

## COMPARISON OF ADJECTIVES

## 314 Comparison of adjectives with sē

The comparative degree of adjectives is expressed by a phrase consisting of the postposition së + admective.

Absolute

- ي~
ye zäfrān mahemggā hai
This saffron is expensive.
Comparative

vo zäfrăn is (zäfrän) sē maheṁgā hai
That saffron is more expensive than this (saffron).


## Superlative - كشميرى زعفران سب سِ <br> kaSmïrī zăfrän sab sē maheriggã hai Kashmiri saffron is the most expensive.

In some contexts the adjective by itself has the force of a comparative.

agar kahīm riksa mil sakē, tō acchā hō
It would be better if (we) could get a rickshaw.

315 Comparison of adjectives with tar, tarin
The comparative and superlative of some Perso-Arabic adjectives can be formed with the Persian suffixes tar تر (comparative) and tarin ترين (superlative). Some of these Perso-Arabic comparatives are used in colloquial spoken Urdu, but most are used in more formal contexts and are found mainly in written Urdu. Additional examples may be found in $\S 1408$.

| Absolute | ي تصوير خوبصورت تـ ye tasvir xübsūrat hai This picture is pretty. |
| :---: | :---: |
| Comparative |  magar vo tasvïr xübsürat tar hai But that picture is prettier. |

Superlative
xübsürat tarinn larkki sē sâdi karnē kī us kī xāhis pürí na hūī
His wish to marry the prettiest girl was not fulfilled.

Persian comparatives and superlatives in common use often lose their comparative and superlative force and merely intensify the adjective.

- بهت
behtar hai (< beh, good ${ }^{3}$ )
It's a very good idea.

[^9]بيي بهتر اُردو بولنا حابتا بول ـ
maim behtar urdū bōlnā cähtā hūm̀
I want to speak better Urdu.

ye behtarīn gharị hai
This is the best (quality) watch.
أُ نـ بد
us nē badtarin gunāh kiyā (< bad, bad ${ }^{4}$ )
He committed a very terrible sin.
إس جماعت كـ زياده تر طالب علم ذبين بيى -
is jamăat kē zyādatar tălib ilm zahīn haimं (< zyāda, more)
Most of the students in (of) this class are intelligent.

## 316 zyāda, 'more', 'most' and kāfi, 'quite', 'too'

zyāda and kāfí are both adjectives and adverbs. Used adverbially, zyāda qualifies adjectives to show a sort of comparative degree. kāfi means 'enough', but when used adverbially to qualify adjectives it can mean 'quite', 'too'.

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { • زياده كام } \\
& \text { zyāda kām } \\
& \text { more (too much) work } \\
& \text { كافى يِيس } \\
& \text { kăfīpaisā } \\
& \text { enough money }
\end{aligned}
$$

317 Superlatives with adjective + sē + adjective
An absolute superlative can be made by by adding the postposition sē $\mu^{+}$ ADJECTIVE to the absolute form of the same adjective.
vo acchē sē acchā makān đ̣hümụ r rahē haim
He is searching for the most excellent possible house (better than good).

[^10]
vo un kē liē burè sē burā kōt xaríd kar lăyā
He bought the worst possible coat (deliberately) and brought it for him.

## ADJECTIVES WITH OTHER GRAMMATICAL FUNCTIONS

## 318 Adjectives used as adverbs

Some common adverbs of place are actually adjectives in the masculine oblique singular. See $\S 409$. A few adjectives can be used adverbially, to modify other adjectives. See §416.

## 319 Adjectives used as nouns

Many adjectives can also be used as nouns.

mujhē barēe dijijiê, chōtē̄ nahīm
Give me the big ones, not the small ones.
برُوت كى قيـتـ كيا بي
barṑm kī qīmat kyā hai?
What is the price of the big ones?
جابلوU كى رائُ كاكيا فائده ؟
jāhilōm k ka rāe kā kyă fäeda?
What use (is) the advice of those who are ignorant?
A few Perso-Arabic loan words, including naujavăn نوجوان , 'young man'; yairmulkỉ غير. ' 'foreigner'; numāinda 'rمائنده , 'representative', and nouns denoting nationality, are classified as both nouns and adjectives.


```
ēk naujavān aur dō bürheēā gaē
```

One young man and two old men came.
 үairmulkïimdād kē silsilē mēmi kaī yairmulkī yahām̆ kām kar rahē haim Several foreigners are working here in connection with foreign aid.

ايرانى سفارت خانر ميي كام كرنخ والح ايرانى...
îrāñi sifârat xānē mēm̉ kām karnē vālē irānī ...
The Iranians working in the Iranian embassy ...

## itnā

itnā is used idiomatically as a noun.
itnē mḕn, 'in the meanwhile'

itnē mēmं ham nē ēk dhamākā sunā
In the meanwhile we heard a crash.
itnē par bhü, in spite of it (this)'

itnē par bhï bacca sōtā rahā
In spite of this the baby went on sleeping.

## ADJECTIVES DISCUSSED IN OTHER CHAPTERS

## 320 Participles used as adjectives

Participles may be used as adjectives. See $\S 901, \S 907$ for detailed discussions.

## 321 Possessive adjectives

The possessive forms of the pronoun are grammatically adjectives, and agree with the nouns they qualify. They are discussed in $\S 212$.

## 322 The reflexive possessive adjective apnā

The reflexive possessive apnā $/$ is grammatically an adjective, and agrees with the noun it qualifies. It is discussed in §213.

## 323 Numbers

Numbers are, of course, adjectives. They are discussed in Chapter 13.

## 4 ADVERBS

The category of adverbs includes two different groups of words: words which are original (underived) adverbs; and words which are originally other parts of speech, but are used adverbially. Many adjectives are inflected to masculine oblique singular and used as adverbs. They may occur more frequently this way than as adjectives. Some nouns occur in adverbial phrases; such nouns are also oblique, and are preceded by an oblique demonstrative.

Adverbs qualify verbs, just as adjectives qualify nouns. Urdu adverbs include: ADVERBS of TIME: describe the time when an event or action occurs; ADVERBS OF PLACE: describe the location where an event or action occurs; ADVERBS OF MANNER: describe how an event or action occurs;
adverbs of degree: intensify the meaning of the verb in some way;
MODAL ADVERBS: modify a verb or adjective.

## SYMMETRICAL y-v-k-j ADVERB SETS

401 The categories: near - FAR - Interrogative - relative
Urdu distinguishes systematically between the categories 'near', 'far', 'interrogative' and 'relative'. An overview of symmetrical sets of words beginning with $\mathbf{y} \sim \mathbf{i} \sim \mathbf{a}$ (near), $\mathbf{v} \sim \mathbf{u}$ (far), $\mathbf{k}$ (interrogative), and $\mathbf{j}$ (relative) is given in Table 11 in $\S 309$. In Table 12 on p .52 contains a comprehensive list of symmetrical adverb sets, including some common adverbial phrases with oblique nouns.

## ADVERBS OF TIME

Some simple adverbs of time can be looked up in a dictionary, and need no explanation.
hamēsa, always
kal, tomorrow (with future); yesterday (with past)
aksar, often
hamesa, always
aksar, often

Table 12: Symmetrical $\mathbf{y}-\mathrm{v}-\mathrm{k}-\mathrm{j}$ adverb sets

| $\mathrm{y} \sim \mathrm{i} \sim \mathrm{a} \mid \mathrm{s}$ | v-u 1 | $k 5$ | て |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Near | FAR | Interrogative | Relative |

Adverbs of time

| ab, now | $\underset{\text { (tab, then) }}{\text { تب }}$ | kab, when | jab, when |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| إس وقت is vaqt at this time | أُس وتت us vaqt at that time | كس وقت <br> kis vaqt at what time | جس وقت jis vaqt at the time that |

Adverbs of place

| يهان |
| :---: |
| yahăm̆, here |
| إس جگّى is jagah |

in) this place, here
idhar, hither
vahäm̆, there
وبان

| كهان |
| :---: |
| kahămi, where |

جهان
jahăm̆, where
جس جیً
jis jagah
in the place
that
جلهر
jidhar, whither

jis taraf
the directio which

Adverbs of manner

| يول yūm, thus | (tyümi) so, thus | كيون kyōm, why? | جول jün̄n, as |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| إس طر is tarah this way | أُ us tarah that way | كس طرح kis tarah, which way? | جس طرح jis tarah in the way tha |

## $402 \mathrm{ab}-\mathrm{tab}-\mathrm{kab}-\mathrm{jab}$

This set of adverbs refers to points in close time, distant time, questioned time and relative time.
ab , 'now' refers to the present moment (close time).

$a b$ ṭhik bära baj gaē haim
Now it is exactly twelve o'clock.

$a b$ sē maim sigrēt pīnā cbōr dūṃ gā
From now on I shall stop smoking.
abhī (ab + hii) means 'right now', 'still'. See also Table 28 in §1207.

abbï ghanṭ̣̄ baj rahī hai
The bell is ringing right now (still ringing).
tab, 'then' is not actually a member of the 'far' category, but a surviving member of a nearly vanished category, the $t$-set, or correlative set. It is still most frequent in correlative clauses (§1112) but has also acquired the function of expressing a point in remote time (past or future). However, us vaqt is more commonly used to express remote time (see §403).

تب دبي نوجوان تها -
tab maimí naujavān thā
Then I was a young man.
تب تكى ركان كى صرف پهلى شنزل بن
tab tak makān kī sirf pahlī manzil ban cukī thi
By then only the first floor of the house had (already) been built.
tabhì ( $\mathbf{t a b}+\mathrm{hi})$ means 'just then', 'only then'. See also Table 28 in §1207.

tabhï ghanṭ̂ bajnê lagi
Just then the bell began to ring.
kab means 'when?'.

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { dunsri manzil kab bane gi? } \\
& \text { When will the second floor be built? } \\
& \text { Wوسبن }
\end{aligned}
$$

kabhī (kab + hī) means 'ever', 'once'. kabhī + nahīm means 'never'. See also Table 28 in § 1207

كيا آي نغ كبهى دبلى كا سفر كيا بـ
kyă āp nē kabhī dehlī kā safar kiyā hai?
Have you ever travelled to Delhi?
jab, 'when', 'at the time that' is used in the relative clause of relative-correlative sentences. See §1112.

## 403 is vaqt - us vaqt - kis vaqt

The noun vaqt 'time' (m.), occurs in adverbial phrases, preceded by an oblique singular demonstrative, or the oblique of kyã or jō. These phrases describe a specific point in time.
is vaqt means 'now', 'at this time', 'at present' (close time).
إس وتت بـلى بيى احتّساب كى ضرورت بـ -
is vaqt mulk mëm chtisäb kī zarürat hai
At present there is a need for accountability in the nation.
us vaqt means 'then', 'at that time' (distant time).
اُس وتت بيي نو جوان تها -
us vaqt maim nau javān thā
At that time 1 was a young man.
أس وتت تكى صرف نهلا
us vaqt tak sirf pahli manzil banit thi
By that time only the first floor had been built.
kis vaqt means 'at what time?'.
\$اكير كس وقت آتا ي ؟
dākiya kis vaqtātā hai?
At what time does the postman usually come?

| Compare | ¢ |
| :---: | :---: |
|  | dā̄kiya kab āe gā? |
|  | When will the postman come (today)? |

jis vaqt, 'at the time that' is used in the relative clause of relative-correlative sentences. See $\$ 1116$.

404

## Calendar and clock time

See §1308-§1311.

## ADVERBS OF PLACE

Many simple adverbs of place can be looked up in a dictionary, and need no explanation.

| بابر الندر | bāhar, out, outside |
| :--- | :--- |
| andar, in, inside |  |
| دوري | qaarib, near |
| dür, far |  |

## 405 yahāṃ - vahāṃ - kahāḿ

This set of adverbs describes location in a place. yahām means 'here' (near location), vahăm̆ means 'there' (far location) and kahăḿn means 'where' (questioned location)
گازى يهان روكى ديجئــ -
gạ̄ị yahămं rōk djjjiē
Please stop the car here.

ham vahāàm cār bajē tak intizār kartē rahē
We went on waiting there until four o'clock.

havāa aḍ̣ā kahām partā hai?
Where is the airport located?
jahām̉, 'where' is used in relative clauses. See $\S 1110$.

## 406 idhar - udhar - kidhar

This set of adverbs describes movement towards a place. idhar means 'hither', 'here', udhar means 'thither', 'there' and kidhar means 'whither', 'where'. To a certain extent, the adverbs describing location: yahāḿ, vahāḿn and kahäḿ் are also used to describe movement, thus acquiring some of the functions of this set.

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { - إِد هر آؤ بيُ à } \\
& \text { idhar āob, bette } \\
& \text { Come here, son. }
\end{aligned}
$$

أُدهر سر پوليس والم آ ربر تهـ ، إدهر سـر پور بهاگ گيا udhar sē pōlīs vālè ă rahē thë, idhar sē cōr bhāg gayā
The police came from that side (as) the thief fled from this side.

- وه إدهر أد هر ديكه ربا تها
vo idhar udhar dēkh rahā thā
He was looking this way and that
تهم كدهر جا ربع بو 9
tum kidharjā rahē hõ?
Where are you going?
Also

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { تم كهان جا رّ بو } 9 \\
& \text { tum kahäríj jā rahē bō? } \\
& \text { Where are you going? }
\end{aligned}
$$

jidhar, 'where' is used in the relative clause of relative-correlative sentences. See \$1111.

## 407 is jagah - us jagah - kis jagah

The oblique noun jagah, 'place' (f.), preceded by an oblique singular demonstrative, or the oblique of kyā or $j \overline{0}$, is sometimes used as an adverb of place, describing the specific location of something.

is jagah zamīnḍàr kā xizāna garāa būā hai
In this spot the landlord's treasure has been buried.

kambaxt cäbī kis jagah paṛi bai?
Where is that wretched key?
jis jagah, 'in the place that' is used in the relative clause of relative-correlative sentences. See $\$ 1110$.

## 408 is taraf - us taraf - kis taraf

The oblique noun taraf, 'direction', 'side' (f.), preceded by an oblique singular demonstrative, or the oblique of kyā or jō, may be used as an adverb of place, describing movement in a direction.

> نذير صاشب كا مكان إس طرف يـر -
> nazīr sāhib kā makān is taraf hai

Mr. Nazir's house in in this direction.

dāk xāna kis tarafhai?
In which direction is the post office?
jis taraf, 'in the direction that' is used in the relative clause of relative-correlative sentences. See §1111.

## 409 Obliques as adverbs of place

Some common adverbs of place are made from (a) adjectives, in the masculine oblique singular case and from (b) nouns, in phrases consisting of an oblique noun preceded by an oblique demonstrative. In many instances, the adverbial use is much more common than use as an adjective or noun.

## Adjectives

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { نيهِ }
\end{aligned}
$$

nicā, low $\rightarrow$ nicē, below
pahlā, first, previous $\rightarrow$ pahlë, first, previously
dāyām̄, right $\rightarrow$ dāēn, to the right
bāyämi, left $\rightarrow$ bäëm, to the left

## Nouns


ägā, the front part, beginning $\rightarrow$ āgē, ahead, forward pīcbā, the back part, end $\rightarrow$ pïcbē, behind, back
sāmnā, encounter $\rightarrow$ sāmnē, opposite, across, in front

| Noun | اس كهانى كا ن~ T T is kahān̄̄ kā na āgāhai, na pīchā <br> There is neither a beginning nor an end to this story (it is rubbish) |
| :---: | :---: |
| Aoverb | نوج Tک بُّه گثى fauj ägē baṛh gaï |
|  | The army advanced (moved forward). |
| Noun | فوج كا يِحها <br> fauj kä pïchā the rear of the army |
| Aoverb | فوج گيخهر بي گكى <br> fauj pïchē hat gaï <br> The army retreated (moved back). |
| Adjective | نيتّي ديوار nicī divār a low wall |
| Adverb |  |
| Adjective | بايان باتهه <br> bäyäṁ hāth the left hand |
| Aoverb | بائين برُ جائتِ băḕn mur jäiyē Please turn left |

## 410 Adverbial phrase or compound postposition?

Nouns used as adverbs, such as taraf, jagah, sāmnā, ägā, etc. can also occur in compound postpositions. Here they are usually preceded by the possessive kā ( $\mathbf{k} \overline{\mathbf{e}} \sim \mathbf{k} \overline{\mathbf{1}}$ ). See $\S 527-\S 530$.

mistrī kī jagah us kā bēṭā ā gayā hai
In place of the mechanic, his son has come.

- با
bāy makān $k \bar{e} p i c h e ̄ ~ h a i ~$
The garden is behind the house.


## ADVERBS OF MANNER

## 411 yūm் - kyōm - jūm்

There is no $\mathbf{v} \sim \mathbf{u}$ (far) member of this set. A correlative, tyūm, 'so', 'thus' is used mainly in idioms together with jū̀n (see §423, §1120).
yüṁ means 'thus'; kyōm means 'why?'.

يون كرو -
yǜm karō
Do it like this.

munnī kyōm cillà rahī hai?
Why is Munni screaming?

## 412 aisā - vaisā - kaisā - jaisā

aisā, 'like this', vaisā, 'like that', kaisā, 'how?' and jaisā, 'such as' (See Table 11 in $\$ 309$ ) are adjectives, but may be used as adverbs of manner, usually in the masculine oblique singular case. As adverbs, jaisē and vaise occur in relativecorrelative sentences (§1117).

```
|\
aisā karō
Do it this way.
```

ويسع كرو جيسع بيس كرتا بول -
vaisē karō jaisē maim kartā hūm̀
Do (it) in the same way I do it.
كتا گهر ميي كيسر گهسا ؟
kuttā ghar mēèn kaisē ghusā?
How did the dog get into the house?

## 413 is tarah - us tarah - kis tarah - jis tarah

The oblique noun tarah, 'kind', 'way' (f.), preceded by an oblique singular demonstrative, or the oblique of kya or $\mathbf{j o}$, is sometimes used as an adverb of manner, describing the specific manner of an event or action.

kis tarah means 'in what way', 'how?', but is also used idiomatically, meaning 'how much?'.

كتّا گهر •بي كس طرح گهسا ؟
kuttā ghar mḕm kis tarah ghusā?
How did the dog get into the house?
ييازكس طرح بي ؟
pyăz kis tarah haim?
How much are the onions?
jis tarah, 'in the way that' is used in the relative clause of relative-correlative sentences. See §1119.

414 Adverbial phrases of manner with the postposition se
The postposition sē, added to nouns, forms adverbial phrases of manner.

- سليم باركها كر زور سح
salīm mār khā kar zōr sē cillāyā (< zör, force $+s \bar{e} \rightarrow$ loudly, forcefulty)
Salim got a beating, and screamed loudly.

ham xusī sē madad karēñ gē (< xusí, happiness $+\mathrm{se} \rightarrow$ gladly)
We'll gladly help.


## 415 Participles used adverbially

All the participles may be used adverbially. See $\S 902, \S 908-9$ and $\S 913$.

## ADVERBS OF DEGREE (416)

Adverbs of degree intensify the meaning of adjectives they qualify.

## bahut, barā, zyāda

bahut means 'very'.

- وه بهت ذـين آدين
vo bahut zahin admī hai
He is a very intelligent man.
The adjective barā, 'big' can be used adverbially as an intensifier.

vo bá zalua mil
He is a very intelligent man.

وه بُّى نيكـ عورت بـ
vo barīnēk aurat hai
She is a very virtuous woman (= bahut nēk).
zyäda is both an adjective and an adverb. Used adverbially, it qualifies adjectives to show comparison. See $\S 316$ for a more detailed treatment.

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { ي } \\
& \text { ye rāsta zyāda gandā hai } \\
& \text { This road is dirtier. }
\end{aligned}
$$

## itnä, kitnã

The adjectives itnā and kitnā ( $\S 309$ ) can be used adverbially as intensifiers, meaning 'such', 'what'.
اُس كو إنّا اجپّها مضمون لكهن پر انعأم هل -
us kō itnā acchā mazmūn likhnē par inām milā
He received a prize for writing such a fine essay.
واه ! كتنى خوبصورت تصوير بـ ! !
vāh! kitnī xübsūrat tasvir hai!
What a beautiful picture it is (lit. how much beautiful)! ${ }^{\text {t }}$

[^11]
## MODAL ADVERBS

This category includes some very common words.

| نهيه ، ن~، هت شايد | nahïm , na, mat, not, do not sâyad, maybe |
| :---: | :---: |
| ضرور | zarūr, certainly |
| ب80 | bhī, also, too |
| جهر | phir, again |
| صرف | sirf, only |

وه نهيه جائُ كا
vo nshīm jā̃e gà
He won't (will not) go.
وه جائُ گا اور وائس آئُ گًا بهى -
vo jāe gā aur vāpas āe gă bhī
He will go, and also return.

وه ضرور جائر گا ـ
vo zarūr jāẽ gā He will certainlygo.

وه بهر جائر vo phir jāē gā He will go again.

## 417 The negative words nahīm, na, mat

nahïm makes negative sentences in present tenses, past tenses except the simple past, presumptive tenses and the future. See Table 13, 'Overview of aspect, tense and mood' on pages $88-89$. Negative words usually come right before the verb phrase. The prescnt auxiliary hai is usually dropped.
وه إتواركو نهيي آتا ـ
vo itvār kō nahïm ă ātā
He doesn't (does not) come on Sundays (dropped hai).
وه إتواركو نههي آتا تها -
vo itvār kō nahīm ātā thā (Past auxiliary thā is kept.)
He didn't (did not) use to come on Sundays.
na makes negative sentences in the subjunctive, simple past and conditional tenses. See Table 13. It also makes negative polite requests corresponding to the pronoun āp, and sometimes with requests corresponding to the pronoun tum.

[^12]وه پِجهل
vo pichlē mangal kō bhī na āyä thä
He didn't (did not) come last Tuesday either.
شا يد وه وقت پِر نــ آلـُـ -

## Saayad vo vaqt par na āe

Maybe he won't (will not) come on time.
-
kal na äyē, parsṓñ äiyē
Please don't (do not) come tomorrow; come the day after tomorrow.
سائيكل يهان ن~ خهوزو -
săikal yahāṃ na chörō
Don't (do $n o t$ ) leave the bicycle here.
mat makes negative requests or prohibitions corresponding to the intimate and non-honorific pronouns tī̀ and tum, and also infinitive-requests.

حير ست كـر گهر جا -
dèr mat kar, ghar jā
Don't (do not) dawdle; go home (request corresponding to tū).
بهائى كو ست ثههيزو -
bhāı kō mat chērơ
Don't (do not) tease (your) brother (request corresponding to tum).
أس دكان سع كـِّه نت خريدنا -
us dukän sē kuch mat xaridnā
Don't (do not) buy anything from that shop (infinitive).

## 418 bhī, 'also', 'too'

bhĩ functions both as a modal adverb and as an emphatic particle. Its latter function is treated in $\S 1210$. The two functions tend to overlap somewhat.

In affirmative sentences, bhì may follow any noun, pronoun or verb, adding the meaning 'also', 'too' to the word it follows.

Affirmative - مهمان بادشابيى مسجد ديكهخ جائيى
mehmān bādsāhī masjid dḕkhnē jāēm gē
The guests are going to see the royal mosque.

+ bhi - - -
ham bhĭ bādşāhī masjid dēkhēm gē
We too will see the royal mosque.

ham sāhī qila bhĩ dêkhēm gè
We will see the royal fort too.
Emphatic bhī وه هسبجد ديكهر گا بهى تو كيا بو گا ؟
vo masjid dēkhē gā bhī tō kyā hō gā
Even if he sees the mosque, so what?

419 'both ... and', 'neither ... nor'
bhī ... bhĭ in parallel clauses means 'both ... and'. nahīm ... bhī nahīm means 'neither ... nor'.

vo bādsāhī masjid bhỉ dēkhē gà aur qila bhỉ
He will see both the royal mosque and the fort.
وه بادشابيى مسشجد نهيي ديكه كا اور قلع بهي نهيي -
vo bādsāhī masjid nahïǹ dēkhē gā aur quila bhī nahìm
He will neithersee the royal mosque nor the fort.

420 phir, 'again', 'then'
phir means 'again', 'over again', 'then'.

- phir kahiē
Please say it again.

āp imtihān mēḿ nākām hō gaē, imtihān phir dēnā cähiē
You failed the examination (and) should take the examination over again.
 pahlē darxāst par mohr lagvā lēnā, phir yahām vāpas ānā First get the application stamped, then come back here.


## ARABIC ADVERBS ENDING IN -an (421)

A group of adverbs borrowed from Arabic ends in $\bar{I}$-an (tanvin). See $\S 1511$.
عموناً
umüman
commonly, generally

## REPEATED ADVERBS

## 422 Simple repetition

The doubling of adverbs usually intensifies them, but may also express distributiveness.

$$
\underset{\text { āhista ähista böliē }}{\text { آبستب }}
$$

Please speak very slowly.

salim mār khā kar zōr zōr sē cillâyā
Salim got a beating, and screamed very loudly.
Sometimes distributiveness is dominant.

un kī talās mēm kahām̀n kahārín nahïm jänãa parā!
How many places I had to look for him (where-where didn't I have to go)!

## 423 Idiomatic repetition

Some doubled adverbs have idiomatic meanings which must be learned individually. These include sequences where the adverb is merely repeated, as well as sequences where two adverbs which are members of the same symmetrical set occur in compounds.

|  |
| :---: |
| كrow |
| ! |
| جول جول |
| جول تيول |

kabhī kabhī, now and then
kahīm kahïm, here and there
idhar udhar, here and there
jūm jūmi, as long as, as far as ( $\$ 1120$ )
jūm tyüm, somehow or the other ( $\$ 1120$ )

## INTERROGATIVES AND INDEFINITES USED WITH IRONY

kyā, kaun, kahāmi, kidhar and kab may be used with irony, not as interrogatives, to deny the idea expressed in the sentence.

424 Interrogative adverbs used with irony
اوركههان جاتى ؟ یوحهتاكون ؟
aur kahāmi jātí? püchtā kaum?
Where else would she go? No one cares (asks).' (Prem Chand, Godīn)

425 Indefinite adverbs used with irony
kahīin may be delexicalized and used with agar, or in place of agar, to express improbability


kahīñ āp kī ainak gum hō jātư, tō baṛì muskil hṑī
It would have been a great difficulty if your glasses had been lost.
kahìm ... na expresses apprehension. The verb is usually subjunctive and in the compound form. The restriction on the use of the negative with compound verbs (§717) does not apply in the case of kahïm ... na

كهيّ كونى نادانى ن كر بيئه -
kahīñ kōī nādānī na kar baiṭhē
I just hope he doesn't do something foolish. (Prem Chand, Godān)

[^13] 'who asks?-no one.' The verb and pronoun are reversed to show emphasis.
kahïm ... tō nahïm expresses strong apprehension. The verb is usually in the compound form, but not subjunctive. The restriction on the use of the negative with compound verbs does not apply in the case of kahīm tō nahīm.

بس كهيي خرابب تو نههي بو گsّى ؟
bas kahīm xarāb tō nahīin hō gaī?
I hope the bus hasn't broken down? (If it has we are really in trouble.)

426 Interrogative pronouns used with irony

vo kyă jāntā thă ke in mêm kyā khicarị pak rahî thī?
How could he know what these two were cooking up between themselves? ${ }^{3}$ (Prem Chand, Godàn)

## ORDER OF MULTIPLE ADVERBS (427)

When a senlence contains two or more adverbs, the adverb of time comes first, followed by the adverb of place, the adverb of manner and the modal adverb. If there is more than one adverb of time, the order is YEAR - MONTH - DAY - HOUR.
آپپ كل يهان ضرور آ ئيّ
äp kal yahām zanūr äiyē
Please come here tomorrow without fail.

aglē sāl janvarì kī pandra tārīx kō das bajè subah ( $\sim$ subh) yahāmin zarūr aiyē
Please come here next year at $10 \mathrm{a} . \mathrm{m}$. on the 15 th of January, without fail.

3 'Did he know ... ?-of course not.' khicarì refers to a dish in which rice and lentils are mixed. Here it means a muddle, mess or conspiracy.

Postpositions follow nouns or pronouns, and mark (a) grammatical functions, (b) location, movement or extent in space and time. A particular postposition may have both grammatical and spatial-temporal functions. Urdu postpositions function similarly to prepositions in European languages. Urdu has only a few prepositions, borrowed from Persian or Arabic ( $\$ 1404, \S 1505$ ).

A postposition may consist of a single word (simple postrostrions) or a phrase. Postpositional phrases are of two types: postrositional sequences (two postpositions expressing a complex relationship of location and movement), and COMPOUND POSTPOSITIONS.

Whenever a noun is followed by a postposition it occurs in the oblique case ( $\$ 110$ ). Pronouns also occur in the oblique case before postpositions ( $\$ 208$ ), except for the first and second person pronouns when preceding the postposition nē (§209).

If bhī, 'also' or hī (emphatic particle) also occur, they normally follow the postposition. (However see $\$ 1206$ for an exception.)

The commonest postpositions, with their short translations, are:

| $55-25$ | kā ( $\sim \mathrm{ke} \sim \mathrm{k} \overline{\mathrm{a}})$, of, 's | " | mêm, in |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| ك | ka, to | پ | par, on, at |
| ن | nē (ergative) | ك | tak, till, until |
| $\sim^{\sim}$ | sē, from, by |  |  |

## GRAMMATICAL POSTPOSITIONS

Grammatical postpositions express for the most part grammatical functions, such as possession or marking of objects and subjects.

## $501 \mathbf{k} \mathbf{a} \sim k \bar{e} \sim \mathbf{k} \bar{i}$ expressing possession

The postposition $\mathbf{k} \overline{\mathbf{a}}(\sim \mathbf{k} \overline{\boldsymbol{e}} \sim \mathbf{k} \overline{\mathbf{a}}$ ) shows a possessive relationship between two nouns. It agrees with the noun it qualifies in gender, number and case, like an adjective.

ساليات كا دحكم
mãliyāt kā mahekma
the Department of Finance

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { mäliyät kē maheksmē mēm } \\
& \text { in the Department of Finance }
\end{aligned}
$$

> سانیى
> māṇ $k i ̄ d u a ̄$
> mother's blessing

## 502 kā marking objects

Some verbs mark objects with kā. See $\$ 526$ for examples of the way that verbs 'take' (collocate with) postpositions.

بيس آپ
maim à āp kā sukr guzār hū̀n
I am grateful to you.
$-{ }_{\text {- }}^{\text {- }}$ بندوبست
salīm nē jalsē kā bandobast kiyā
Salim arranged the meeting (did the arrangement of the meeting).

## 503 Inflected kā in compound postpositions

Many compound postpositions are phrases consisting of $\mathbf{k} \overline{\mathbf{e}} \sim \mathbf{k i}$ (inflected forms of $\mathbf{k} \bar{a}$ ) followed by a noun, adjective or adverb. See §527-§531.
Noun
Adjective
x كى طرف
$\mathbf{X k i}$ taraf < taraf (f.), direction, side, way in connection with $X$

Adjective
5x
$\mathbf{X}$ kē mutãbiq < mutâbiq (adj.), conformable, similar according to $X$

Aoverb
(وx
$\mathbf{X k e ̄}$ ūpar < ūpar (adv.), above, up, over above X

## 504 kō and its alternate forms

Following nouns, kō always occurs as a postposition, but following pronouns (including personal, demonstrative, interrogative and relative pronouns, except $\overline{\mathrm{a}} \mathrm{p}$ ), it may be replaced by the suffix $\overline{\mathbf{e}} \sim(\mathrm{h})$ ēm ( $\$ 210$ and Table 5 in $\S 210$ ).
kō marking objects
The indirect object of a verb is marked by kõ. The indirect object precedes the direct object.
شابد نغ اينى والده كو تار بهيجا
sähid nē apnï välida kō tār bhējā
Shahid sent a telegram to his mother.

> baccī nē mehmān $k o ̄$ phül pēs kiyē
> The little girl offered flowers to the guest.
kō sometimes marks direct objects. Such objects are either (a) animate direct objects or (b) specified inanimate direct objects. Human objects are normally marked with $\mathbf{k} \overline{0}$, but in certain cases kō may be omitted to show that the object is unspecified. ${ }^{1}$

Some verbs take objects marked with sē ( $\$ 515$ ), kā ( $(502$ ) or par ( $\$ 525$ ). See $\S 526$ for examples of the way that verbs collocate with postpositions.

## Animate direct objects

| سليهم كو بألأ - | - بخّول كو با |
| :---: | :---: |
| salīm kō bulāo | baccṑm kōb bā $\begin{aligned} & \text { le calō }\end{aligned}$ |
| Call Salim. | Take the children to the park. |

كتّ كو بت ثههيلو
kutē $k o ̄$ mat chērō
Don't tease the dog.

## Specified direct objects

يانىى كا نل خراب بي ، نل والـ كو بالاؤ ـ
pān̄ kā nal xarāb hai, nal vālē kō bulāō
The water pipe is broken; call the plumber.

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { اُس صندوق كو خالى كر دو - } \\
& \text { us sandūq kō xālī kar dō } \\
& \text { Empty that box. }
\end{aligned}
$$

1 Grammarians who treal grammatical postpositions as case-markers define objects marked by $\frac{\mathrm{k}}{\mathrm{o}}$ as being in the dative case.

## Unspecified direct objects

پانى كا نل خراب بي ، فوراً نل والا بالاو
pānī kā nal xaräb hai, fauran nal vālä buläō!
The water pipe is broken; call a plumber at once!
صندوق اوير ل> جاؤـ
sandūq ūpar lē jāō
Take the box upstairs.

## 506 kō marking subjects

In impersonal constructions ( $\S 641$ ) the 'real' or logical subject of the verb is marked by $k \overline{0}$, and the verb agrees with the logical direct object. It is considered a subject because it may control the reflexive possessive adjective apnã ( $\$ 213$ ), be the subject of a clause with a conjunctive participle (§612), and typically stands in first place in the sentence.

Many impersonal constructions describe the experiencer's subjective state, which has led to the coining of the term experiencer subjects. Experiencer subjects tend to occur with the verbs hōnā̄, 'to be', and ānā, 'to come' and lagnā, 'to be applied'.

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { akram kō samōsë pasand haim } \\
& \text { Akram likes samosas. }
\end{aligned}
$$

أن كو كابيابىى كمى توقع نهيی -
un kō kāmyābī kī tavaqqō nahūm
Hedoesn't expect to succeed.
 mujhē apnā nayā makān pasand hai Ilike my new house.

ستجه أس كا نام ياد نهيسـآ ريا mujhĕus kā nām yād nahīm ä rahā Idon't recall his name.

## lagnā with experiencer subjects

lagnā has no precise English translation, although it is often defined as 'to be attached', 'to be applied'. In impersonal constructions with experiencer subjects, lagnā can mean 'to seem', 'to feel', or 'to catch (an illness)'.
ي~ بات سـع نهي نگّتي -

## ye bāt sac nahīm lagtī

## This thing does not seem true. ${ }^{3}$

2 Grammarians who treal grammatical postpositions as case-markers call subjects marked by kō dative subjects.
3 The logical subject is not expressed.

اُن كو ديرا جانا بُرا لَّا ـ
un kō mērā jānã burā lagã
They were displeased by my going (lit. my going seemed bad to them).

baccê kō khānā dēkh kar bhūk lagnē lagī
The child saw the food and began to feel hungry.
آپ كو يم زكام كها سع لغَ گیا
āp kō ye zukäm kahām̉ sē lag gayă hai?
How (lit. from where) did you catch this cold?

507 kō showing movement in a direction or to a destination
kō occasionally expresses direction of movement in physical space. However in this function it is usually deleted, leaving behind an oblique noun.

cārōm pürab dēs kō cal parē (Narang, Readings)
All four set off to an eastern country.
كيا آپ
kyā āp d̛āk xānē̄ jā rahē haim? (deleted kō)
Are you going to the post office?

## $508 \mathrm{kö}$ after days and dates


haftē kō maim masrūf hümi, pir kō äiyē
I am busy on Saturday; please come on Monday

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { pandra agast kō } \\
& \text { on the 15th of August }
\end{aligned}
$$

## 509 kō following infinitives

kō following an oblique infinitive shows an impending event or purpose (§646).

## 510 nē marking subjects

nē marks the 'real' or logical subject of transitive verbs in perfective tenses (see §629). The verb agrees with the logical direct object, unless it is marked by kō. See $\S 211$ for the forms of pronouns used before né. ${ }^{4}$

ahmad nē sãrē samōsē khāē haim
Ahmadhas eaten all the samosas (agreement with samōsē).
Compare احمد ساريـ سموسِ كهائر
ahmad särē samōsē khāè gā
Ahmad will eat all the samosas (agreement with ahmad).

## SPATIAL-TEMPORAL POSTPOSITIONS

Spatial-temporal postpositions refer to location, movement or extent in space and time. (But these postpositions also have some grammatical functions, particularly sē.) They may be divided into two groups: (a) those which may not be followed by a second postposition (sē, tak), and (b) those which may be followed by sè to make postpositional sequences (\$533).

511 se with ablative function
In the following, see shows spatial movement away from something, or lapse of time ('since', 'for').

> يم بس كهاU س آتى سی
> ye bas kahăăm sē ātī hai?
> Where does this bus come from?
maim dō din sê bïmār hūm
I have been sick for two days.

## 512 see marking the instrument

sē may mark the instrument, and is translated as 'with' or 'by'.

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { هـم } \\
& \text { qalam sē dastxat karnā } \\
& \text { Sign (it) with a pen. } \\
& \text { تهم ريل سع سفركري گ\% } \\
& \text { ham rḕ sē safar karḕm gē } \\
& \text { We will travel by train. }
\end{aligned}
$$

4 Grammarians who treat grammatical postpositions as case-markers call subjects marked by nē ergative subjects.
sē marks the instrument of verbs expressing incapacity ( $\$ 635$ ) and involuntary action (§801), as well as causative (Chapter 8) and passive (§634) verbs.

## Incapacity

- سجه سـ اليسى دواكّهاثُى نهيي جاتى
mujh sē aisĭ davā khāi nahīm jātī
I can't possibly take such medicine.


## Involuntary action

او بو ، شتجه سی كيا بو گیا ؟
ō hō, mujh sē kyā hō gayā?
Oh no, what have $I$ done (involuntarily)?

## Instrument of passive


ye sarak mazdürōm sē banāa jāē gí
This road will be built by labourers.

## Instrument of causative

بيس آبَ كاكام سليم سع كرواؤل
maịm äp kă kā̀m salïm sē karvàūù gā
I'll get Salim to do your work.

## 513 sē in comparison of adjectives

The comparison of adjectives with sē is discussed in §314 and §317.

## 514 sẽ in adverbial phrases

sē is added to nouns to form adverbial phrases of manner. See §414.

[^14]
## 515 sē marking objects

Certain verbs require objects marked with sē. (See $\S 526$ for examples of the way that verbs 'take' (collocate with) postpositions.)

## Direct object

milnā, to meet ${ }^{5}$

adïb risālē kē mudïr sē milā
The writer met the editor of the journal.
milnā, 'meet', can also take the object with $\mathbf{k} \overline{0}$, in which case a more coincidental meeting is implied.

āj maim hamsāe $k o ̄$ bas kē aḍdē par mil gayā
Today I met the neighbour at the bus stop.
بو

kōī mērē dil sê pūchē têrê tir-e-nīm kas kō
Someone should ask my heart about your half-released arrow (Ghalib)

## Indirect object

Kahnă, to say, tell

maim àp sē kuch kahnā cäht̄ hum்
I would like to tell you something.

## 516 se forming postpositional sequences

$s \bar{e}$ is added to other spatial-temporal postpositions to make postpositional sequences. See §533.

[^15]
## 517 tak showing extent or limit

tak shows that something extends to a specific point in time or space.

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { - حار بی } \\
& \text { căr bajé takãiyē }
\end{aligned}
$$

Come by four o'clock (not later).
أنهوU نغ دور دور تكـ پوركى تلاش كى -
unhōm ñ nē dür dür tak cōr kī talās kī
They searched far and wide (till far and far) for the thief.
The idiom $X$ se lè kar $Y$ tak shows a complete range from $X$ to $Y$ (and everything in between)'.

bēcära unnīs sau assī sē lē kar unnīs sau pacānavē tak qaid rahā
The poor man was imprisoned from 1980 to 1995.

## 518 tak as an emphatic particle

tak is sometimes used as an particle meaning 'even'. It is more emphatic than bhi. In this usage it is not a postposition, and the noun (or pronoun) is not in the oblique case.

naujavān kyā, büṛhē tak xuSĭ manā rahē haim
Even the elders are celebrating, not to mention the young people.

## 519 mēñ with locative function

mēm் expresses location in or at a point in space or time. Such location may be concrete or quite abstract.

يهم ابهى راستخ •بي بيى -
ham abhī râstē mḕ̆ haim
We are on the way now.
دونول بيس گهرى دوستى يه -
dōnợń mêm̀ gehrī dōstī hai
There is deep friendship between (both of) them.
mēm can show transformation from one state to another.


The fairy changed the mice into white horses.
mëm is used with lagnā, 'to be applied' to express 'to cost' and 'to take time'.

is kām mḕ $\dot{m}$ pāmंc sau rūpaē lagē
This work cost five hundred rupees.
وبال جانٍ هيي كتن دن
vahām jānē mēm kitnē din lagẽ?
How many days did it take to go there?

## 520 Infinitives followed by mēm

Infinitives used as verbal nouns (\$639) may be followed by mēm, with idiomatic meanings.

> purānē Sahr jānē mēmi ādhā ghanṭā lagtă hai
> It takes half an hour to go to the old city.

ye khānā khānē mēm ăsān hai magar hazm karnē mēm muśskil
This food is easy to eat but hard to digest.

521 par with locative function
parexpresses location on something which has a surface ('on'), next to something in space, or upon or immediately after a point in time ('at', 'in'). par has a variant form pe $\underset{\vartheta}{ }$, occurring in colloquial speech and poetry.

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { الستخ rāstè par, on the road } \\
& \text { بيز پر mēz par, on the table } \\
& \text { پ } \\
& \text { وقت یر } \quad \text { vaqt par, in (on) time }
\end{aligned}
$$

par occurs in a few contexts where mēñ might be expected. This may reflec former spatial realities. Formerly a shop was a stall, not a room, and customers stood on the threshold.

> dukān par, in the shop
پانیِ بج كر تيره هنـط پر شديد زلزلم آيا -

## päñc baj kar tëra minat par Sadīd zalzala äyā

At thirteen minutes after five a violent earthquake occurred.

$\bar{a} p k i ̄ ~ d a r x \overline{a ̄ s t ~ p a r ~ h a m ~ a p n e ̄ ~ n i s a ̈ b ~ k i ̄ ~ n a q l ~ b h e ̄ j ~ r a h e ̄ ~ h a i m i ~}$
At your request I am sending a copy of our curriculum.

vo kamra hazār rüpaê mahinē par mil saktâ thā
That room used to be available at a thousand rupees a month.

522 par showing movement to a destination
par may express movement to a destination.

mairn kām parcalā
I went to work.

وه بهم巾 پֶر روانم بو گیا ـ
vo muhim par ravãna hō gayā
He left on an expedition.

## 523 par following oblique infinitives

Infinitives used as verbal nouns (8639) may be followed by par. This usage is similar to par expressing location immediately after a point in time ( $\$ 521$ ).

halïm khänē par hï mujhē̆ us kā maza māāūm hūā
Only on eating halïm did I discover its delicious taste.

## 524 Oblique infinitive + par bhì

See $\S 1213$.

## 525 par marking objects

A few verbs require objects marked with par. (See $\S 526$ for examples of the way that verbs collocate with postpositions.)
أُنى كی بات پر دجهر بنسىى آكتُى -
un kī bāt par mujhē hamsī̀ à gaī
What he said made me laugh (laughter came to me at what he said).

## 526 Collocations of verbs with postpositions

Different verbs collocate (occur together with) different postpositions in sentences. These collocations are lexical properties of the verb, that is to say, part of the way in which meaning is encoded in the verb. (In English too, different verbs take different prepositions.) VERB + POSTPOSITION collocations must be learned along with the individual verbs.
(a) Some verbs require no postposition with inanimate direct objects, or if the object is human, or specified, it is marked with kö ( $\$ 505$ ).

كريهم ز ثار بهيجا
karim nē tär bhējā
Karim sent a telegram to his mother.
(b) Some verbs take objects with $\mathrm{k} \overline{\mathrm{a}}$ (§502).

> كا انتظاركرناx X X kā intizār karnā, to wait for X

- بهم آپ
ham ãp $k a ̄$ intizãr karēm gē
We will wait for you.

كريدم ن خوكيدار كو بهيجا
karim nē caukidà̈r kō̃ bhējā
Karim sent the watchman.

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { گأول والم بزرگول ير اعتباركرتـ بي - } \\
& \text { gãōṃ vālē buzurgōm par ētibār kartē hairn } \\
& \text { The villagers rely on the elders. }
\end{aligned}
$$

(c) Some take objects with sē (§515).
 ~ X sē larnā, to quarrel, fight with $X$

مرغا مرغ سـ لكُ ا
muryā muryē sē larā
The cock fought with the cock (in a cockfight).
(d) A few verbs take objects with par (§525).

The denominative verbs (§607) formed from madad, 'help' illustrate the way in which postpositions contribute to nuancing of meaning in verbs.
كمى كرنا X X kī madad karnā, to help X
وه غريبوU كو هدد كرتى يـي -
vo $\gamma$ aribṑm ki madad kartí hai
She helps the poor.
كو بدد دينا X X kō madad dēnā, to help X, give help to X

muSkil vaqt par unhṑn nē mujhē madad di
He helped me at a difficult time.
كو بدد رلنـا X X kō madad milnā, X to receive help
بند كـ ستاثرين كو حكوهت سم مدد هلى تهى -
band $k \bar{e}$ mutäsirīn kō hukūmat sé madad milī thī
Those affected by the dam received help from the government.
س X X sē madad lēnā, to get, take help from X

vo ye kām akēlā nahïm̉ kar saktă, kisī kī madad lēnā parẹ gï
He can't do this job alone; (he) must get help from someone.

> baccōṁ kī sarārat par үussa karnā munāsib nahīm̉ hai
> It is not appropriate to get angry at the mischief of children.

## COMPOUND POSTPOSITIONS

Compound postpositions are postpositional phrases consisting of inflected kā + a noun, adjective, adverb or more complex construction. There are a great many such postpositions. Some of the most common are presented here, listed according to the six main structural types to which they belong. The order of the elements in some postpositional phrases is reversible (with or without minor changes in phrase structure or agreement). Those phrases are marked with an asterisk ( ${ }^{*}$ ) and amplified where necessary by footnotes.

527 kā + oblique noun + postposition
$\mathbf{k} \overline{\mathbf{k}}$ is inflected to $\mathbf{k e}$ or $\mathbf{k} \overline{\mathbf{r}}$, agreeing with the noun in gender and case.
(dï) vajah sē, because of/on account of $<$ وجم vajah (f.), reason, cause
kê sabab sē, because of < سبـ sahab (m.), cause, reason

* kē zariē (sè), by means of ${ }^{6}$ < ذريعر zaria (m.), means
* kē taur par, as, by way of ${ }^{7}$ < طور taur (m.), manner, way kē muqābilè mèm̀, in comparison with < مقابلم muqābila (m.), comparison
 āp ye kām kis kā vajah sē kar rahē haimi?-ammãàm kē hukm kī vajah sē On whose account are you doing this work?-On account of mother's order

Compare the meaning of kis vajah sē (without kī):

ăp ye kām kis vajah sē kar rahē haimं?-lâzimì hai
Why are you doing this work?-It's essential.

```
تح\mp@code{* %}
tohfê kē taur par
as a gift
```

[^16]
## 528 kā + oblique noun

$\mathbf{k a}$ is inflected to kē or kī, agreeing with the noun in gender and case.
kē säth, with < ساته säth (m. \& adv.), company
kē xilāf, against, contrary to ${ }^{8}<\omega$ خ خilāf ( $\mathrm{m} . \&$ adj.), opposition
kē vāstē, for, in order to < واسطر vāsta (m.), connection, reason
ki taraf, towards > طرف taraf (f.), direction, way, side


* kē ilāva, in addition to, besides ${ }^{9}<\cos ^{\text {人 }}$ ilāva ~ alāva (m.), superaddition

لزِّا دوستول كَ ساته كهيل ربا بيا -
larkā dōstōm kē sāth khēl rahā hai
The boy is playing with friends.

ye qānūn $k \bar{e} x i l a ̄ f h a i$
This is against the law.

mistrï kī jagah us kā bêtāa à gayā hai
In place of the mechanic, his son has come.

in vasāel kē iläva ~ ilāva in va
in addition to these resources
$529 \mathrm{k} \overline{\mathrm{a}}+\mathrm{oblique}$ adjective
$\mathbf{k a}$ is inflected to $\mathbf{k e}$, agreeing with the oblique adjective.

* kē mutaalliq, about > mutaalliq, connected with kē mutäbiq, according to > mutābiq, conformable, similar kē barābar, equal to, similar to > برابر baräbar, even, level, equal

[^17]
apnē xāndān $k e \bar{e}$ mutaalliq kuch batāiyē
Tell something about your family.
جميلم كا قد ایْغ بهائى كح برابر ير -
jamila kā qaad apnē bhāa kē barābarhai
Jamila's height is equal to her brother's.

## 530 kā + adverb

kā is inflected to kē.
kē bād, after > بعد bād, afterwards, later
kē pīchē, behind, after < pīchē, behind, after

$\mathbf{k e ̄}$ pās, near; shows possession <

* kē sivā except for ${ }^{10}$ > سوا sivā, apart from

وه خورشيد صاحب كح بعد كمر< بي آيا -
vo xurşid sāhib $k e ̄ ~ b a ̈ d ~ k a m r e ̄ ~ m e ̄ m ~ a ̄ y a ̄ ~$
He came into the room after Mr. Khurshid.

vo xursĩd sähib kē pīchē kamrē mēṃ ãyā
He came into the room behind Mr. Khurshid.
اُن
un kī dukän ghar $k \bar{e} p a ̄ s ~ h a i ~$
Their shop is near the house.
531 ( $\mathbf{k a ̄}$ ) + Persian preposition + oblique noun
$\mathbf{k a ̄}$ is inflected to kē or kī, agreeing with the noun in gender and case.

[^18]* kē bayair, without < ba, with, by + غير $\quad$ زair (m.), stranger
 bazaria-e-X, by means of $\mathbf{X}$ ba, with, by ${ }^{12}+{ }^{2}$; zaria (m.), means bataur-e-X, as, by way of $X^{13}<$ ba, with, by + b taur (m.), manner
* kē bāvujūd, in spite of < bā, with $+2 \rightarrow 2$ vujūd (m.), existence kē bar xilāf, contrary to < bar, on, over + خلافف xiläf (m.), opposition kē darmiyān, between, among < dar, in + miyăn (m.), the middle

without these resources
إسى
is kamrē $k \bar{i}$ bajāē ~ bajāē is kamrē $k \bar{e}$
instead of this room
بطظور تحف:
bataür-e-tohfa
as a gift
bayair also occurs with the perfective participle:

> لغيير بيرى بات سـبجه - بيرى بات سسنجه بنير
> bayair mēri bāt samjhē ~ mẽrī bât samjhē ba रair without having understood what I said (mëri băt)

532 Noun + izāfat
xilāf-e-X, against, contrary to $X^{14}<$ خالف xilāf (m.), opposition
خالف حـهم
xilāf-e-hukm
contrary to orders
$11 j \bar{e} \bar{e}$ (properly jāy) is an old form of jā. When the order is reversed, the postposition $k \bar{a}$ appears in the m . obl. sg. case.
2 Occurs unreversed as kē zaria-e-X (sē). kā is lost when the postposition is reversed.
3 Reversed form of kē taur par
14 Reversed form of kē xilăf

## POSTPOSITIONAL SEQUENCES

533 Spatial-temporal postpositions + sē
The postposition sē is added to other spatial-temporal postpositions (with the exception of tak and see itself) to make postpositional sequences. The first postposition locates an event in space or time, and sé expresses further movement beyond that location.

in sâlōm mêm sè ēk cun lijijē
Choose one of (out off these shawls.
بوائى جهاز شهركد اوير ســ گزرا -
havā̄ jahāz sahar kē ūpar sē guzrā
The aeroplane passed over the city.
هوبيا يلنگّ
cūhiyã palang kē niccē sē ā niklī
The mouse popped out from under the bed.
-
ham nē dehlī ki taraf sē safar kiyā
We travelled via Delhi.
Compare

> ham nē dehlī $k i$ taraf safar kiyā
> We travelled in the direction of Delhi.

## EXPRESSING POSSESSION (TO HAVE')

Possession may be expressed by $\mathbf{k} \overline{\mathbf{a}}(\sim \mathbf{k} \overline{\mathbf{e}} \sim \mathbf{k} \overline{\mathbf{1}}$, $\mathbf{k e}$ päs or $\mathbf{k o}$, depending on the nature of the possessive relationship.

## 534 Inalienable possession: $\mathbf{k} \bar{a}(\sim \mathbf{k} \overline{\mathbf{e}} \sim \mathbf{k} \overline{\mathbf{i}})$

When possession is of something which one normally or customarily has, such as kin, body parts, reputation, landed property or a home, $\mathbf{k a}(\sim \mathbf{k} \overline{\mathbf{e}} \sim \mathbf{k i})$ is used.

sähida kē dō bhāı haim
Shahida has two brothers.
bēcãrè kā sirf èk pāōm hai
The poor fellow has only one foot.

```
نمارا گهر نهيِ بحـ -
hamärä ghar nahīm hai
We have no house (home).
إس تالג كى كونى چابیى نهيس We have no house (home)
is tălē kīkōī cäbī nahīm
This lock has no key.
```


däktar sähab ki barì izzat hai
The doctor enjoys (has) great respect.

## 535 Alienable possession: kē pās

When possession concems (temporary) physical ownership or control of a tangible object, kē pās is used.

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { دهوبى كمح ثاس سائيكل بنح - } \\
& \text { dhöbī } k e ̄ p \text { ās sälkal hai } \\
& \text { The washerman has a bicycle. }
\end{aligned}
$$

## 536 Intangible possession: kō

When possession concerns something abstract or intangible, impersonal constructions with kō are generally used.

Having an illness is expressed with kō, however this could equally well be considered a case of an experiencer subject ( $\$ 506$ ).

أُستاد كو بهت كام
ustãd kō bahut kām hai
The teacher has a lot of work.
كيا Tب ك فو فت
kyā āp kō fursat hai?
Are you free (do you haveleisure time)?

mujhē zukām $h$
I have a cold.

## 6 VERBS

## FORMS OF THE VERB

Urdu verbs have four parts, or basic forms: the root, imperfective participle, perfective participle, and infinitive. These are elaborated with auxiliaries and suffixes into a complex system of verb tense and aspect (see Table 13 on pages 88-89). The basic form of a verb determines its aspect, whereas the auxiliary (or in the future tense, the future suffix) determines its tense.

## 601 Root

The verb root is the form to which surfixes are added. A useful rule of thumb states that the root is that part of the verb which remains when the infinitival suffix $U$-nā is removed. The formation of infinitives is regular.

| جان jānā, to go | $\rightarrow$ | ج j ā, go |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| كرنا karnà, to do | $\rightarrow$ | 5 kar , do |
| دينا dèn̄̄, to give | $\rightarrow$ | - de, give |
| سنil sunnā, to hear, to listen | $\rightarrow$ | سن sun, hear, list |

Double transitive and causative STEMS are formed by the addition of the increment, $-\bar{a}(-\overline{\mathrm{a}})$ to the root ( $\$ 803)$. Double causative stems are formed by the addition of the increment $-v \bar{a}(\sim-l v \bar{a})$ to the root ( $\$ 811$ ). To inflect a verb, it is not necessary to know whether one is dealing with a verb root or a derived stem, as verbal constructions are formed from roots and stems in the same manner. One must remember that the derived stem of a root is a different verb from the root, and has a different meaning.

| سن sun, hear, listen | $\rightarrow$ | Tin sunā, tell (§805) |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 5 kar , do | $\rightarrow$ | 1,5 karā, cause to be done (§810) |
| $\xrightarrow{2}$ dè, give | $\rightarrow$ | ل dilā, cause to be given (\$810) |
| سن sum, hear, listen | $\rightarrow$ | سin sunvā, cause to tell (\$811) |
| 5 kar , do | $\rightarrow$ | ا كرو karvā, cause to do (\$811) |

The subjunctive ( $\S 608$ ), request forms ( $\S 610$ ), future ( $\S 611$ ), conjunctive participle ( $\$ 612$ ) and continuous tenses ( $\$ 614-\S 617$ ) are formed from the verb root (or stem). The verb root is also used with the modal verbs saknā, 'to be able' to show ability ( $\$ 618$ ); and with cuknä, 'to be finished' to show completion ( $\$ 620$ ).

Table 13: Overview of Aspect, Tense and Mood
(The form of the negative is shown in parentheses after the forms.)
Infinitive

| ānā, 'to come' |  |
| :---: | :---: |
| Basic form of verb | $\begin{aligned} & \text { ROOT } \\ & \overline{\mathbf{a}} \end{aligned}$ |
| Simple constructions |  |
|  | SUBJunctive <br> (agar) vo $\bar{a} \bar{e}^{(+n a)}$ <br> (if) he comes; he might come |
|  | future <br> vo āe gā (+ nahìm) he will come |
| Aspect | CONTINUOUS TENSES (DURATIVE ASPECT) |
| Complex constructions |  |
| Present | continuous present vo ā rahā hai (+ nahīmi) he is coming |
| Past | CONTINUOUS PAST <br> vo ā rahă thā (+ nahìm) <br> he was coming |
| Conditional | CONTINUOUS CONDITIONAL (agar) vo ā rahä hō (+ na) <br> (if) he is coming |
| Presumptive | CONTINUOUS PRESUMPTIVE vo ā rahā hō gă (+ nahīm்) he must be coming |
| Irrealis <br> (Unfulfilled conditions) | CONTINUOUS IRREALS (agar) vo ā rahā hōtā (+ na) (if) he were coming |


| IMPERFECTIVE PARTICIPLE àtā | PERFECTIVE PARTICIPLE āyā |
| :---: | :---: |
| ifREALS <br> (agar) vo ātā (+ na) <br> (if) he had come | SIMPLE PAST vo āyä (+ na, nahīm ${ }^{\text {m }}$ ) he came |
| habitual tenses (IMPERFECTIVE ASPECT) | punctual/past tenses (perfective aspect) |
| habitual present vo ătâ hai (+ nahīmí) he comes | IMMEDIATE PAST vo ăyă hai (+ nahāmí) he has come |
| habitual past vo ätã thā (+ nahīmí) he used to come | REMOTE PAST vo āyā thā (+ nahīim) he had come; he came. |
| habitual conditional (agar) vo ātā hō (+ na) (if) he comes | CONDITIONAL PAST (agar) vo āyā hō (+na) (if) he has come |
| HABITUAL PRESUMPTIVE vo ātă hō gā (+ nahīńn) he must come | PRESUMPTIVE PAST vo āyā hō gā (+ nahīm $)$ he must have come |
| habitual irrealis (agar) vo ātā hōtā (+ na) (if) he came (regularly). | PAST IRREALIS (agar) vo āyä hōtā (+ na) (if) he had come |

## 602 Infinitive

The infinitive is the form of a verb which is given in dictionaries. It has the suffix -nä, and may be inflected like a masculine noun.

سنـنا sunnā (v.t.) to hear, to listen
karnă (v.t.) to do, to act, to perform
The infinitive is used as a verbal noun ( $\$ 639$ ), as a request form ( $\$ 610$ ) and in infinitival constructions showing necessity, advisability, obligation, imminence, the agent, permission, purpose, and negative assertion ( $\S 642$-§650).

## 603 Imperfective participle

The imperfective participle is formed from the root by the addition of the present suffix -tā ( $\sim-\mathrm{te} \sim-\mathbf{t} \overline{\mathrm{t}})$, which is inflected like an adjective to agree with nouns or pronouns in gender and number.

| سنّن sunnā, to hear, listen | $\rightarrow \quad$ muntā, hearing, listening |
| :---: | :---: |
| كرنا karnā, to do | - كرتا kartâ, doing |
| كرانا | $\rightarrow$ كراتا karàtā, causing to be d |

Forms of the imperfective participle
سنتا sunnā, to hcar


The feminine plural suffix -timi occurs in the habitual present when the auxiliary is dropped in negative sentences: suntïm, kartim.

The imperfective participle is a verbal adjective. It may be used as an adjective ( $\$ 901$ ), but its most important function is contribution of the aspect of incompleteness to the tense system. Imperfective tenses describe actions or states which are not completed. Most imperfective tenses are habitual: they describe actions or states which occur generally or regularly. They include the habitual present ( $\S 623$ ), habitual past ( $\S 624$ ), habitual conditional ( $\S 625$ ), and habitual presumptive ( $\$ 625$ ). The simple irrealis ( $\$ 622$ ) is identical with the imperfective participle. The imperfective participle is used in sequences with rahnă to show continuation (§626) and jānā to show progression (§627).

## 604 Perfective participle

The perfective participle is formed from the root by the addition of the past suffix $-\overline{\mathbf{a}}$ ( $\sim-\overline{\mathrm{e}} \sim-\overline{\mathbf{1}} \sim-\overline{\mathrm{i}} \mathbf{m})$, which is inflected like an adjective to agree with nouns or pronouns in gender and number.

سنتا sunnā, to hear, listen $\rightarrow$ سنا sunā, heard
كرانا karānā, to cause to be done $\rightarrow$ karāyā, caused to be done
Forms of the perfective participle
سنتا sunnā, to hear

## Singular

| Masculine | sunā | سنا | sunī | sunë |
| :--- | :---: | :---: | :---: | :--- |
| Feminine | سنیين | sunīḿ |  |  |

When the m . sg. and f. sg. forms $-\overline{\mathrm{a}}$ and $-\bar{i}$ of the past suffix are added to roots ending in vowels, the root vowel and the suffix vowel combine as follows:

| $\overline{\mathrm{a}}+\overline{\mathrm{a}} \rightarrow \overline{\mathrm{a}} \mathrm{y} \overline{\mathrm{a}}$ | khā, eat | $\rightarrow$ | ككهايا khāyā, eaten (m. sg.) |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $\mathrm{a}+\overline{\mathbf{a}} \rightarrow$ ayā | ga<jä, go | $\rightarrow$ | \% gayā, gone (m. sg.) |
| $\bar{o}+\overline{\mathrm{a}} \rightarrow$ ōyā | sō, sleep | $\rightarrow$ | / soyyā, slept (m. sg.) |
| $\overline{\mathbf{i}}+\overline{\mathbf{a}} \rightarrow$ iya | pi, drink | $\rightarrow$ | Li piyă, drank (m. sg.) |
| $\underline{\mathbf{i}+1} \rightarrow \mathbf{i}$ | pī, drink | $\rightarrow$ |  |
| $\underline{\mathrm{i}}+\mathrm{i}$ im $\rightarrow \mathrm{im}$ | pī, drink | $\rightarrow$ |  |
| $\mathbf{i}+\mathbf{i} \rightarrow \mathbf{i}$ | di < dê, give | $\rightarrow$ | s di, gave (f. sg.) |

Five verbs have irregular perfective stems, as shown in Table 14 on p. 92.
The perfective participle is a verbal adjective. It may be used as an adjective ( $\$ 907$ ), but its most important function is contribution of the aspect of completeness to the tense system. Perfective tenses describe actions or states which are completed. They are also punctual: they describe actions or states occurring once. They include the immediate past ( $\$ 631$ ), remote past ( $\$ 632$ ), conditional past ( $\$ 633$ ), and presumptive past ( $\$ 633$ ). The simple past ( $\$ 630$ ) is identical with the perfective participle. The perfective participle is used in sequences with jānā, 'to go' to form the passive (§634) and with karnā, 'to do' to show habit (§636).

## Table 14: Irregular perfective participles

| Root | Perf. stem | Perfective participle |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  |  | M. SG. | M. PL. | F. SG. | F. PL. |
| \% | \% | بوا | بوئغ | "وئى | بوئيّ |
| hō, be | hü- ${ }^{1}$ | hūā | hū̀e | hūī | hūị̂n |
| ج | 5 | \% | \% | ك\% | كيّين |
| ja, go | ga- | gayā | gaè | gaī | gaim |
| 5 | 5 | 15 | ك | $v^{5}$ | ك |
| kar, do | ki- | kiyā | kiyē | ki | kīm |
| - | 3 | ديا | 2 | ى | دين |
| dè, give | di- | diyā | diyē | di | dim |
| 」 | لـ | W | - | ل | ليى |
| lē, take | li- | liyā | liyē | 1 I | lịm |

## THE VERB hōnā, 'TO BE'

## 605 The conjugation of hōnă

Table 15 shows the present, past and future conjugations of the verb hōnä. (For information about the pronouns in the table, see $\S 202-\S 204$.)

Table 15: The present, past, subjunctive and future forms of hönä Present tense of hōnā
Singular

| 1st person | -بين بول | maim hüm | I am. (m.f.) |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 2nd person | تو بٌ | tur hai | You are. (m.f.) |
| 3rd person | - | vo hai | He , she, it is. |
| Plural |  |  |  |
| 1st person |  | ham haim | We are. (m.f.) |
| 2nd person | تم بو | tum hō | You are. (m.f.) |
|  | آپپ | äp haim | You are. (m.f.) |
| 3rd person |  | vo haim | They are. (m.f.) |

[^19]The present forms of hōnă agree with the subject noun or pronoun in person and number. Negatives are made with nahïm ( (\$417). In unemphatic negative sentences, present forms of hōnā are dropped. (ye mērī tōpī nahīm hai 'This is not my hat' $\rightarrow$ ye mêrī ṭōpī nahī̀m.)

## Past tense of hōnā

## Singular

| Ist person | بيس تها - تهى | maim thā (m.) ~ thī (f.) | I was. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 2nd person | تو تها - تهى | tū thà (m.) ~ thī (f.) | You were. |
| 3rd person | وه تها - تهى | vo thă (m.) ~ thī (f.) | He, she, it was. |
| Plural |  |  |  |
| 1st person |  | ham thē (m.) ~ thïm (f.) | We were. |
| 2nd person | تآم ته - تهي | tum thē (m.) ~ thïm (f.) | You were. |
|  | آلپ تهـ - تهبي | app thè (m.) ~ thīm (f.) | You were. |
| 3rd person | وه تهـ - تهيى | vo the (m.) ~ thīm (f.) | They were. |

The past tense forms of hōnā are adjectival, and agree with the noun or pronoun in gender and number. The negative used with the past of hönā is nahīm (and occasionally na) (§417)

Subjunctive mood of hōnā

## Singular

| 1st person | هبي بون | maimin hüm | I may/should be. (m.f.) |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 2nd person | تو بو | tū hō | You may/should be. (m.f.) |
| 3rd person | (\% 9 | vo hō | He, she, it may/should be. |
| Plural |  |  |  |
| 1st person | بهب بول | ham höri | We may/should be. (m.f.) |
| 2nd person | تم بو | tum hō | You may/should be. (m.f.) |
|  | آلپ بون | āp hōm | You may/should be. (m.f.) |
| 3rd person | وه بول | vo höṅ | They may/should be. (m.f.) |

The subjunctive forms of hōnā agree with the subject noun or pronoun in person and number. Negatives are made with na (§417). The first person singular forms of the subjunctive and of the present are identical; the context provides the information necessary to distinguish them.

| Future tense of hōnā |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Singular |  |  |  |
| Ist person | - | maim hürn gā | I will be. (m.) |
|  | +ين بول گى | maimi hümi gi | I will be. (f.) |
| 2nd person | تو بو | tū hō gā | You will be. (m.) |
|  | تو بو | tū hō gio | You will be. (f.) |
| 3rd person | وه بو | vo hō gā | He , it will be. (m.) |
|  | وه بو كّى | vo hō gi | She, it will be. (f.) |
| Plural |  |  |  |
| 1st person | بهم بول \% | ham hōm gē | We will be. (m.) |
|  | سم بول | ham hōm gi | We will be.(f.) |
| 2nd person | تم بو | tum hō ge | You will be. (m.) |
|  | تم بو | tum hō gi | You will be. (f.) |
|  | آلپ بول | ăp höm gee | You will be. (m.) |
|  | آلپ بول | ăp hōm gi | You will be. (f.) |
| 3rd person | وه بول | vo hōm ge | They will be. (m.) |
|  | وه بول | vo hōm gi | They will be. (f.) |

The future tense of hōnā is formed by adding the future suffix $\mathrm{ga}(\sim \mathrm{ge} \sim \mathrm{g} \overline{\mathrm{e}})^{2}$ to the subjunctive forms. Although it is a suffix, it is written as a separate word in Urdu. The future suffix is adjectival, and agrees with the noun or pronoun in gender and number. The form of the negative used is nahïm (\$417). The future tense of hōñ̄ expresses both future and presumption.

## Examples

آلج بي دفتر بيس نهيي (بول) -
āj maiún daftar mēm nahī̀m (hümi)
Today I am not in the office.

kal mausam acchā thā lēkin àj acchā nahī̀m
The weather was fine yesterday but today (it) isn't fine.
2 The future suffix is a contraction of gā̄̄ (= gayā, the perfective participle of jānā̀). Compare the English 'I am going to be.'

agar mausam acchā hō, ham sair karēm gē
If the weather is good, we will go for a walk.

rēdiyō sē sunā hai ke kal mausam acchā hō gã
I've heard on the radio that the weather will be fine tomorrow.

mērī cizzēm yahīm thïń, magar ab nahịm (haiù)
My things were right here, but now they aren't.

āp kī cīzēm̀ mahfưz haimi. vo almārī mēm̀ hṑn gì
Your things are safe. They must be in the cabinet.

## 606 hōnā as an auxiliary verb

In the Urdu verbal system, the tense of the auxiliary verb hönā determines the tense of the verbal construction (Table 13 on pages 88-89).
(a) Present tenses (continuous present, habitual present and immediate past) are formed with the present tense of the auxiliary.
(b) Past tenses (continuous past, habitual past and remote past) are formed with the past tense of the auxiliary.
(c) Conditional tenses (continuous conditional, habitual conditional and conditional past) are formed with the subjunctive mood of the auxiliary.
(d) Presumptive tenses (continuous presumptive, habitual presumptive and presumptive past) are formed with the future tense of the auxiliary.

## DENOMINATIVE VERBS (607)

Denominative verbs are verb phrases consisting of a noun or adjective plus an inflected verb. They are very frequent in Urdu, which has borrowed Perso-Arabic nouns, adjectives and derived verbal elements, such as Arabic participles ( $\$ 1501-\delta 1502$ ) and Persian present and past stems ( $\$ 1406$ ) extensively. An Urdu verb is added to these loans, most frequently kamā (but dēnā, 'to give', lēn̄ā, 'to take', bămidhnā, 'to tie', nikālnā, 'to take out', lagānā, 'to apply', uṭhānā, 'to raise' and rakhnā, 'to put' also occur). English borrowings are assimilated in the same way.

The intransitive of denominative verbs is formed by substituting a semantically appropriate intransitive verb, such as hōnā for karnã (see $\S 807$ for examples).

When the phrase is not formed with karnā, it is essential to check the dictionary to find the intransitive. Denominative verbs are listed under the noun or adjective which forms the head of the phrase.

The inflected verbs in denominative verbs collocate with (take) different postpositions in sentences (§527). These collocations must be learned along with the individual verbs.

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { كمى عز"ت كرنا } \\
& \rightarrow \text { كى عزّت بونا } \rightarrow \text { x }
\end{aligned}
$$

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { ك } \rightarrow \text { x } \\
& \text { ك } x \\
& \rightarrow \text { كو } \rightarrow \text { x Xkō Y sè izzat milnā, } X \text { to be honoured by } Y \\
& \text { كو شكسبت دينا } \\
& \text { شكست كههانا } \\
& \mathbf{X} \text { kō Sikast dēnā, to defeat } \mathbf{X} \\
& \text { كV }
\end{aligned}
$$

$\mathbf{X} \mathbf{k i ̄}$ izzat hōnā, X to be honoured
$\mathbf{X}$ ki samagling karnā, to smuggle $X$
$\mathbf{X k i}$ samagling hōnā, X to be smuggled
$X$ kō izzat dēnā, to show respect to $X$
$\mathbf{X}$ kō Sikast dēnā, to defeat $\mathbf{X}$
sikast khānā, to be defeated
$X$ kā mehr bāmd ${ }^{\text {man }}$ ā, to agree to a dowry of $X$
$\mathbf{X}$ kī zimmēdārī lēnā, to take responsibility
for X
Also:
ذx
$\mathbf{X}$ kỉ zimmēdări uṭhänā, to take responsibility
for X
جلوس نكالنا $\quad$ Julūs nikālnā, to parade, parade in protest

## VERB FORMS BASED ON THE VERB ROOT

## 608 Subjunctive

A verb is used in the subjunctive mood when it describes an action or state which is uncertain in some way, or which is contingent on something else. Hence the subjunctive is often used in conditional sentences and subordinate (dependent) clauses. Certain conjunctions, adverbs and phrases require the subjunctive.

The subjunctive is not a tense. When translating it, the context of the whole sentence, including the tense of the verb in the main clause, must be considered.

Table 16: Forms of the subjunctive
karnā 'to do'
Singular

| 1st person | هيي كرول | maimi karüm | I may do. (m.f.) |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 2nd person | توكرك | tū karē | You may do. (m.f.) |
| 3 rd person | وه كرك | vo karē | He, she, it may do. (m.f.) |
| Plural |  |  |  |
| 1st person | سهمرين | ham karēm | We may do. (m.f.) |
| 2nd person | تهم كرو | tum karō | You may do. (m.f.) |
|  | آبپ كرين | āp karë̀m | You may do. (m.f.) |
| 3 rd person | وهكريو | vo karēm | They may do. (m.f.) |

The verbs hōnā, 'to be' (§605), dēnā, 'to give' and lēnā, 'to take' are irregular.
dēnā 'to give'
Singular

| 1st person | "بي دول | maimin dürn | I may give. (m.f.) |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 2 nd person | تو دـ | tū dē | You may give. (m.f.) |
| 3rd person |  | vo dē | He , she, it may give. |
| Plural |  |  |  |
| 1st person | بها دي | ham dḕn | We may give. (m.f.) |
| 2nd person | ته دو | tum dō | You may give. (m.f.) |
|  | آبپ دين | āp dēm | You may give. (m.f.) |
| 3rd person | وه دين | vo dēm | They may give. (m.f.) |

lēnā, 'to take'
Singular

| 1st person | ميل لون | maimín lüm | I may take. (m.f.) |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 2nd person | تو لـ | tūle | You may take. (m.f.) |
| 3rd person | وه | vo lē | He, etc., may take. |
| Plural |  |  |  |
| 1st person | بهم لين | ham lērn | We may take. (m.f.) |
| 2nd person | تهم لو | tum lo | You may take. (m.f.) |
|  | آٓپ | āp lḕm | You may take. (m.f.) |
| 3rd person | وه لي | vo lēm | They may take. (m.f.) |

The forms of the subjunctive agree with the subject noun or pronoun in person and number. Note that subjunctive suffixes do not show gender. The form of the negative used with the subjunctive is na (§417).

## The subjunctive in main clauses

The subjunctive is used in main clauses: (a) in asking for permission or advice, (b) in making a wish or expressing a preference, (c) in expressing encouragement, (d) in making an indirect command, (e) as one form of request, (f) following sāyad, 'maybe', and kās (ke), 'if only', and (g) in questions expressing doubt or uncertainty.

- كيا بي اندر آؤل ؟ ـ- ضرور ، آئيـ آئيـ
kyā maimm andar āüün?-zarūr, āiyē āiyē!
May I come in?-Certainly, come in, come in!
- آئي ،كهاناكهائيي
äiyê, khānā khāēm
Come; let's eat.

hämid sē kahō ke mat cūx̃ē
Tell Hamid not to shout.
- بائيي طرن هلي
bāịn taraf calēṃ
Please drive on the left.
شايد آج شام كو چاند نظر آن
sāyad āj sām kō cām̀d nazar āē
Maybe this evening the moon will be visible (sighted).
كاش آج چاند تظر آنُ ، كل عيد بو گى !
kās āj cäm̀d nazar àē, kal îd hō gị!
If only the moon is sighted tonight, tomorrow will be Eid!
Because the subjunctive may express a wish, when using it to express the possibility of an undesirable event, the subjunctive verb is often put in the negative. This is an exception to the restriction on the negative with compound verbs (\$717).
3 sayad may also be followed by a verb in the simple past, referring to a completed event: sayad vo aisī davā na khā sakā, 'Maybe he couldn't take such medicine.'
4 kās may also introduce clauses in the irrealis: kâs āp baṭvà na bhültē, 'I wish you had not forgotten (your) wallet.'


## اتنا بهارى صندوق أوير ن~ ركهو، كهيى گر نـ جائـ ! <br> itnā bhärí sandūq ūpar na rakhō, kahīm gir na jāē! <br> Don't put such a heavy box up (on a rack), lest it fall!

## The subjunctive in subordinate clauses

Not all subordinate clauses have verbs in the subjunctive. However subordinate clauses are dependent clauses, and so inherently contingent. Certain conjunctions and impersonal expressions having to do with contingent situations introduce subordinate clauses with verbs in the subjunctive. They may be called subordnating expressions.
agar, 'if', ke, 'that' may introduce clauses containing the subjunctive.
jab tak + negative, 'until', 'unless' introduces a relative subordinate clause (§1114) which may contain a subjunctive.
tā ke, 'so that', basartêke, 'on condition that' ( $(1228)$ always introduce clauses with the subjunctive.

## Subordinating expressions: impersonal constructions

The following impersonal expressions introduce subordinate clauses which contain subjunctive verbs.

| مككن | mumkin hai ke, it's possible that ... |
| :---: | :---: |
| جانبٌ | cähiè ke, it's needed that ... |
| ضروزى | zarüri hai ke, it's necessary that ... |
| N | munăsib hai ke, it's appropriate that ... |
| V | xudä karè ke, God grant that ... |
| ايسط ن بو | aisā na hō ke, lest (it should not be such that) ... |

## Subordinating expressions: personal constructions

The following verbs introduce subordinate clauses which function as direct objects of main clauses, and which contain verbs in the subjunctive.

فرض كرنا (N)
مجبور بونا حابنا
( 5 (
كوشش كرناكم
farz kamã (ke), to suppose (that)
majbūr hōnă ke, to be compelled, obliged to cähnā ke, to want (to)
( X kā) dil cähnā ke, (X) to feel like
kōSiśs kamā ke (in requests), to try (to)

Note: many subordinating expressions may also introduce the irrealis. See §609, 'Unfulfilled wishes, conjecture and regret'.

## Examples


mumkin hai kemujhē vazīfa na milē
It's possible that I might not get the scholarship.

cāhiē ke ham andhērā hōnēe sē pahlē ghar pahumicḕm
We ought to reach home before dark.
ضروى
zarūrí hai keāj hī paisa adā kar dūḿ
It's necessary that $(\mathrm{I})$ pay the money today.

xudā karề kenajma kṑ vazīfa mil jāē!
May God grant that Najma gets the scholarship!

àj hī xaridō, aisãã na hō ke kal na mile!
Buy it today, lest it be unavailable tomorrow!

hukūmat majbür hai ke lōdşêding mēñ izāfa karē
The government is compelled to increase the power cuts.
فرض كيجئ كم إس سال انتخابات بول ...

## farz kījiē ke is sāl intixābāt hṑ $\dot{m}$...

Suppose there are elections this year ...

abbā jān cāhtê thê ke maim barāààdmì banū̀̀
Daddy wantedme to become an important person.
كوششش كرو كـ كسى كو تكليف نُ دو -

## kösisis karō ke kisī kō taklīf na dō

Try not to give trouble to anyone.

## 609 Conditional sentences

Condrional sentences consist of two clauses. The first, or condition clause usually begins with agar الرك. The second, or result clause, begins with tō تو . agar is often deleted, tō rarely (\$1202). agar may also be replaced, by jab جب (§1112) or jō جو (§1106-§1107).

Urdu conditional sentences belong to two basic categories: fulfillable conditions, and unfulfilled conditions (IRREALIS). Unfulfilled conditional sentences, also called 'contrary to fact' sentences, describe conditions which have not been, or cannot be, fulfilled.

## Fulfillable conditions

Fulfillable conditions include (a) those that will probably be met, and (b) conditions which are presumed to be met. When the verb in the condition clause is subjunctive, or in one of the imperfective tenses (present or future), the condition remains open-ended. It is possible or even probable that the condition will be met, but it has not happened yet, or it is not yet confirmed. There is still a possibility that the condition will fail.

The verb in the result clause provides the context of the result (a present result, a future result, or a command), and the tense of the sentence.

When the verb in the condition clause is in the simple past, the action in the condition clause is either (a) complete (and the condition will have been met), or (b) the perfective aspect is used to affirm the result (provided the condition is met). ${ }^{5}$ Perfective tenses cannot be used in the condition clause if there is little likelihood of the condition being met, or if the action is still continuing.

Possibility/probability: condition in the subjunctive or the future
ارك تيل گرم بو تو آلو دُال دو -
agar têl gar(a)m $h o ̄$ tō ālū dăl dō
If the oil is hot, put in the potatoes. (I expect it is hot.)

agar āp marīz kā ilàj na karèm tō vo mar saktă hai
If you don't treat the patient, he could die (I think you might not do so.)

5 Compare the following use of a perfective tense to express affirmation: mäni!-āyā jī, 'Gardener!-Just coming, sir.' The gardener has not come, but uses the simple past to affirm that he is doing so immediately.

خير اگر آپ بيرس ساته زسوا بول گی تو كوئى حرج نهيي -
xair agar āp mērè sāth rusvā hōm gì tō kōī harj nahīm
Fine, if you will be disgraced along with me, then there is no harm. (Rusvā, Unrāō Jăn Adā)

agar vo cäm̀d par qadam rakhē tō apnē mulk kā jhandā kharāà kar dē gā
If he setsfoot on the moon, he will set up the flag of his country. (It is possible but unlikely; a simple past verb is not possible.)

Presumed present fact: condition in the present or habitual present
اگَ تيل گرَ
agar tēl gar(a)m hai tō ā̄ū d̄āl dō
If the oil is hot, put in the potatoes. (It looks hot now, but check it.)

agar āp marizz kā ilāj nahïm kartē haim tō vo mar saktā hai
If you don't treat the patient, he could die. (You don't seem to be doing so.)
Completed action/affirmation of result: condition in the simple past

agar āp nē marizz kā ilāj na kiyã tō vo mar saktā hai
If you don't treat the patient, he could die (You have indicated you won't.)

- آپ ن
àp nē mehnat kī tô zarūr kāmyăb hör̀ gē
If you work hard (you) will certainly succeed (You have not yet made the effort, but your success is assured if you do.)


## Unfulfilled/unfulfillable conditions (irrealis)

When imperfective participles without auxiliaries are used in both the condition clause and the result clause, the sentence describes a failed condition, or a condition which is impossible to meet (irrealis).

> agar vo cäm̀nd par qadam rakhtā tō apnc̄ mulk kā jhandā kharā kar dētā
> If he had setfoot on the moon, he would have set up the flag of his country. (He failed to get into the space programme.)

اكر آت بريض كا علاج نـ كرت تو وه مر جاتا
agar āp marīz kāilăj na kartē tō vo mar jätā
If you hadn't treated the patient, he would have died. (You treated him.)

agar āp darväzē mērǹ tālā lagātê tō cōr kaisē andar âtâ?
If you had locked the door, how could the thief have got in? (He got in.)
آكر اور جيتخ ربتغ يههى انتظار بوتا
agar aur jitề rahtê, yahī intizār hötā
If I were to live longer, it would only be to wait like this (Ghälib)
When the condition clause ends in thā ( $\sim$ thē $\sim$ thī) or a verb in the remote past, the condition has also failed, but the sentence suggests that there is scope for discussion on the subject.

agar āp nē đarvāzē mēm̀ tā̄ā lagãyã thā tō cör kaisê andar a a gayā?
If you had locked the door, how did the thief get in? (For the sake of
argument, $I$ accept your assertion, nevertheless the thief did get in.)

## Unfulfilled wishes, conjecture and regret (irrealis)

Conjunctions, impersonal expressions and verbs which normally require the subjunctive may take the imperfective participle to show rreealls (conjecture, regret, etc.). Irrealis may also be used in place of the subjunctive to wish for something impossible.

farz kijiē ke āp cämd par qadam rakhtē ...
Suppose you were to set (had set) foot on the moon ...

cāhiē thā ke maim darvāzē mēḿ tālā lagātā
I should have locked the door.
كاش آپٍ بئوا نم بهولتح -
kās āp baṭvā na bhūltē
I wish you had not forgotten (your) wallet.

## Complex conditional sentences

Precise distinctions of aspect can be expressed in conditional sentences (both fulfillable and irrealis). See $\S 617$ (continuous conditional, continuous irrealis), $\S 625$ (habitual conditional, habitual irrealis), and $\S 633$ (conditional past, past irrealis).

## 610 Request forms

## Request forms corresponding to tū, tum and $\overline{a p} p$

There are three basic levels of request forms in Urdu, corresponding to the three second person pronouns tū, tum and āp. See $\S 203$ for a discussion of these pronouns.

The use of compound verbs (Chapter 7) with the vector verbs dēnā and lēnā is very common with request forms, but particularly with the mid- or tum-level forms, where they point to the reciprocal transactions which take place in the solidary relationships where tum is often used.

Lower level request forms corresponding to tï consist of the verb root alone.

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { - كهاناكها بييّا } \\
& \text { سو جا ـنخ سو جا ـ } \\
& \text { khānā khā, bētẹ } \\
& \text { Eat (your) food, son. } \\
& \text { sō } j \bar{a} \text { munnē, } \stackrel{\text { sō }}{j a} \\
& \text { Go to sleep, baby, go to sleep. }
\end{aligned}
$$

Mid-level request forms corresponding to tum consist of the verb root with the suffix $\overline{-0}$ (identical to second person plural (tum-level) subjunctive forms). They are used towards persons addressed with the pronountum.

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { كهاناكها لو - } \\
& \text { khānā khā } \neq 0 \\
& \text { Eat (your) food. }
\end{aligned}
$$

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { ab sō̃ jāō, dẽr hō gä̆ hai } \\
& \text { Go to sleep now; it is late }
\end{aligned}
$$



## āp bāzär jätē vaqt mujhē säth lê calō nā!

When you go to the market do take me along!
Polite request forms corresponding to āp consist of the verb root with the suffix -iē ( $\sim$-iyē) for most verbs. -iyē is added to most roots ending in long vowels; -iè is added to roots ending in consonants.

Four verbs have irregular stems, as shown in Table 17 on p. 105.

| $\underbrace{\text { vin }}_{\text {caliê }}$ |  |
| :---: | :---: |
| Please walk. | Please go |

Table 17: Irregular request forms

| Roor | Polite request stem | Polite request form |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| kar, do | ك kij- | kijiē |
| dè, give | dij- |  |
| lê, give | - ${ }^{\text {人jij- }}$ | ليجئغ |
| pī, drink | ( $\mathrm{p} \mathbf{i j}$ - |  |

## Examples


ab khānā khāiyē ~ ab khẫnā khā lıjiē
Please eat (food) now.

âp bāzār jātē vaqt mujhē sāth lê caliē
When you go to the market please take me along.
Courteous formal requests may be made by suffixing gā to an āp level request.

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { yahāṃ baithié gā, dāktar sāhib abhī ānē vālè hairin } \\
& \text { Please sithere, the doctor is on his way now. }
\end{aligned}
$$

## Other request forms

The infinitive may be used as a request that is neutral with respect to honorific levels (§203). It is appropriate for neutral requests or impersonal instructions.

- النا
cauk sê bāēm murnã aur sau mịtar āgē calnă
Turn left at the crossroads and walk a hundred metres further.

pānī pīnë kẽ qäbil banānē kē liè usẽ pãme minaṭ tak ubālnā
To make water fit to drink, boil it for five minutes.
The subjunctive, ( $\S 608$, p. 103) may be used as a request form.
صرف تازه يهل اور سبزيان خريديى -
sirf tăza phal aur sabziyāற் xarīdḕn
Buyonly fresh fruit and vegetables.

dhōnē sē pahlễ har pattè kō alag karëm
Before washing, separate every leaf.
It is appropriate to make formal polite requests to strangers of equal or superior status (persons addressed with āp or an honorific title) using verb phrases with tastifi, 'one's honourable self'. (See $\S 1603$ for more examples.)

تشريف لانا
taśríf lānā
to bring one's honourable self ( $=\bar{a} n \bar{a}$, to come)

āiyē, taśrif lăàyē, maim àp ki kyā xidmat kar saktā hümi?
Come in, come in; how can I help you?
كهانا تيّار بي ، تشريف لائيه ،كهاناكهائيه -
khānā tayyär hai, taśriif lāìyē, khāñ̄ā khäiyē
The food is ready; please come and eat.
تشريف ركهنا
tastrif rakhnā
to place one's honourable self (= baithnā̃, to sit, maujūd hōnā, to be present)
جناب يهال تثشريف ركهُ -
janäb, yahăm̉n taśrif rakhiē
Sir, please sit here.

## 611 Future tense

The future tense (Table 18 on p. 107) is formed by adding the future suffix gā $\overline{\mathcal{V}}$ ( $\sim \mathrm{ge} \overline{\mathcal{E}} \sim \mathrm{gi} \overline{\mathrm{i}}$ ) to the subjunctive forms of a verb. The future suffix is adjectival, and agrees with the noun or pronoun in gender and number. Agreement in person, as well as number, is shown by the verb's subjunctive base. The form of the negative used is nahïm ( $\$ 417$ ).

The verbs hōnā, 'to be' (§605), dēnā, 'to give'; and lēnā, 'to take' are irregular.

Presumption is expressed by adding the future of hōnă to continuous (§617), habitual (§625) or past (§633) tense verbs.

Table 18: Forms of the future
karnā, 'to do'

| Singular |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 1st person | ميي كروU | maimi karüṅ gā | I will do. (m.) |
| 2nd person | - | maimi karüṁ gi | I will do. (f.) |
|  | تو كربـر | tü karè gà | You will do. (m.) |
|  | تو كر, | tī karè gio | You will do. (f.) |
| 3rd person | < | vo karē gā | He , it will do. (m.) |
|  | g\% | vo karẽ gi | She, it will do.(f.) |

Pluafl.

| 1st person |  | ham karêmi | We will do. (m.) |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | 5 | ham karēm gi | We will do. (f.) |
| 2nd person |  | tum karō gē | You will do. (m.) |
|  | كr | tum karō gio | You will do. (f.) |
|  | ¢ | āp karēm gē | You will do. (m.) |
|  | إب كري | āp karêm $\mathrm{gio}^{\text {i }}$ | You will do. (f.) |
| 3rd person |  | vo karēm gē | They will do. (m.) |
|  | وهركر | vo karēı̇n gí | They will do.(f.) |

dēnă, 'to give'
Singular
1st person

2nd person

3rd person

maimi dūm g maim dūñ g

I will give. (m.) I will give.(f.)
tū dē gà
tū dê gì
vo dē gā
vo dē gī
You will give.(m.)
You will give. (f.)
He , it will give. (m.)
She, it will give. (f.)
Plural
1st person ham dêm̉ gē We will give. (m.)

1st person $\quad$| ham dēñ gē | We will give. (m.) |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
|  | ham dēmं gī | We will give. (f.) |

| 2nd person | تمه دو \% | tum dō gē | You will give. (m.) |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | ت | tum dō gì | You will give. (f.) |
|  | آپ ديو | àp dēnn gè | You will give. (m.) |
|  | آپ | äp dēñ gir | You will give. (f.) |
| 3rd person | وه دير | vo dêmé gẽ | They will give. (m.) |
|  | وه دير | vo dēñ gì | They will give. (f.) |

## Examples



```
karācī jānē vā̄ī rēl gạrị sạṛhē nau bajé chutêe gi
The train going to Karachi will leave at 9:30.
```


ham har muskil mēm jitēém gē
We will win in every difficulty.
اتگلِ سال ميس بندوستان جاؤن گا ــ
aglê sâl maim hindūstản jâüṃn gã
Next year I will go to India.

- بيט آپ
mairm äp kē vādē par bharōsã karüun gí
I will rely on your promise.


## 612 Conjunctive participles

## Form and function of conjunctive participles

The root of karnă, kar is added to the root of any verb to make a conudnctrive participle. Conjunctive participles transform two separate but related clauses into a single sentence which shows two actions or events happening in succession. The two clauses must have (a) the same subject, and (b) verbs in the same tense.

The form of the negative used with conjunctive participles is na (§417), however negative conjunctive participles are uncommon.

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { بين گهر جاؤل گا اور آرام كرون گا ـ } \\
& \text { maimin ghar jāüủn gā aur ārām karūm gā } \\
& \text { I will go home and I will rest. }
\end{aligned}
$$

$\rightarrow \quad-\quad$ -
maim̉ ghar jă kar āräm karüm̉ gā
I will go home and rest (having gone home, I will rest).
سليمم نـ برُّها اور امتحان ديا -
salìma nē parhä aur imtihān diyā
Salima studied and took the examination.

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { سليم ن نيرّه كر امتتحان ديا - } \\
& \text { salīma nē parh kar imtihān diyā } \\
& \text { Salima studied and took the examination. }
\end{aligned}
$$

The sequential order of the two actions becomes unambiguous when the conjunctive participle replaces the first verb: 'I will rest after I go home.' 'Salima studied before taking the examination.'

## Alternate form root $+k \bar{e}$ of conjunctive participles

The conjunctive participle of karnā itself is roor $+\mathbf{k e}$.

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { ميس كام كرون گا اور آرام كرون گا - } \\
& \text { maimin kām karūm̀ gā aur ārām karūm gā }
\end{aligned}
$$

1 will work and I will rest.
$\rightarrow \quad$ ميس كام كركـ آرام كرون گا
maim kăm kar kẽ ärăm karüun gà
I will work and (then) I will rest.
The alternate form root $+k \bar{e}$ is often used to form conjunctive participles with other verbs as well (although conjunctive participles with kar are the written standard, and more common, usage).

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { پرّها كح آرام كرو ! } \\
& \text { pặ力 kēārām karō! } \\
& \text { Study before you rest! }
\end{aligned}
$$

## Short absolutives

The verb root alone may function like a conjunctive participle (the short absolutive). Short absolutives are incorrect in modern standard Urdu, ${ }^{6}$ but may
6 In Hindi, when the first action in some way causes the second action, kar may be omitted. This usage is not allowed in standard Urdu.
nevertheless be found in texts, particularly older ones.

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { پانى إتنا تهاك سب } \\
& \text { pānī itnā thā ke sab kuch bahā lē gayā } \\
& \text { There was so much water that it carried everything away. }
\end{aligned}
$$

## Idiomatic phrases with kar

kar is added to xās, 'special' to form the phrase خاص זās kar, 'particularly' (with the same meaning as xăs taur par). kyōm kar means 'how?'.

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { ايساكيول كر بو! ؟ } \\
& \text { aisā kyöḿ kar hūā? } \\
& \text { How did it happen like this? }
\end{aligned}
$$

## Conjunctive participles in sentences with impersonal constructions

When the second clause is an impersonal construction, the clauses may appear to have different subjects:

- Vahā̀nं jã
(We) will go there and get good samosas.
The subject of the first clause is an omitted pronoun (ham), whereas the subject of the second appears to be samōse. But samōsē milēm gē is an impersonal construction, and the verb agrees with the direct object, samöse, while the real subject of the second clause is an omitted ham kō. (See §506, §641.)

$$
\begin{align*}
& \text {. } \\
& \text { ham vahām j jāēn gē aur ham kō acchē samōsē milēm̉n gē } \\
& \text { We will go there and we will get good samosas. }
\end{align*}
$$

## Mixed transitivity with conjunctive participles

The verb in the main clause (below, the second verb) is the sentence verb, and determines the transitivity of the sentence. If the main verb is transitive, the subject is followed by $\mathbf{n e}$ if the verb tense is perfective ( $\$ 629$ ). If the main verb is intransitive, the entire sentence is treated as intransitive, and nē is not used.

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { بين يُّه كر گهر گیا ـ } \\
& \text { maim pặh kar ghar gayä } \\
& \text { Having studied, I went home. }
\end{aligned}
$$

## 613 Repeated roots in conjunctive participles

When the verb root in a conjunctive participle is repeated, the action of the verb is repeated, takes a period of time or occurs continuously

us nē paisē gin gin kar apnē baṭvē mḕn rakhē
He counted the money very carefully before putting it in his bag.
كروئيى بدل بدل كر اور آنسو بها بها كر سارى رات كانىى -
karvatẹem badal badal kar aur āmंsū bahā bahā kar sārī rāt kātī
He spent the entire night tossing and turning (changing positions) and shedding tears. (Narang, Readings)

## 614 Continuous tenses

Continuous tenses have durative aspect they describe actions or states which are incomplete and in progress. They have the following structure:

## VERB ROOT + rahā $\sim$ rahī $\sim$ rahē + inflected AUxiliARY VERB

rahā is the perfective participle of rahnā, 'to stay', 'remain'. It is delexicalized (has lost its original meaning) and functions as the continuous participle. It agrees with the subject noun or pronoun in gender and number, like an adjective.

For an overview of continuous tenses, see Table 13 on pages 88-89. For the auxiliary verb hōnā, see $\S 605-\S 606$.

## 615 Continuous present

The continuous present tense (Table 19, on p. 112) describes actions or states which are incomplete and in progress at the time of speaking. The present tense of the auxiliary is used, and the verb agrees with the subject.

The form of the negative is nahīm (\$417), although negative sentences in the present continuous tense are rare. If a negative present continuous does occur, the auxiliary may be dropped.

## Examples

بهائى ابهي گهر آ ربا به -
bhāi abhī ghar ä rahā hai
Brother is coming home now.

## Table 19: Continuous present tense of kamā

| Singular |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 1st person | ميى كر ربا بول | maimi kar rahā hūm | I am doing. (m.) |
| 2nd person | ديى كر ربّ بول | maim kar rahī hūm | 1 am doing. (f.) |
|  | توكر ربا بـ | tū kar rahā hai | You are doing. (m.) |
|  | توكر | tū kar rahī hai | You are doing. (f.) |
| 3rd person | وهك كر ربا | vo kar rahā hai | He , it is doing. (m.) |
|  | وهك كر ربى | vo kar rahī hai | She, it is doing.(f.) |
| Plural |  |  |  |
| 1st person | بهم | ham kar rahē haim | We are doing. (m.) |
|  | سمكر ربیى | ham kar rahi haim | We are doing. (f.) |
| 2nd person | تمr | tum kar rahē hō | You are doing. (m.) |
|  | آكر ربى بو | tum kar rahī hō | You are doing. (f.) |
|  | آبپ | àp kar rahē haim | You are doing. (m.) |
|  | آبپ كر ربی | āp kar rahï haim | You are doing. (f.) |
| 3rd person | وهكر ره | vo kar rahē haim | They are doing. (m.) |
|  | وه كّر ربى ليس | vo kar rahī haim | They are doing. (f.) |

## (Examples)


farìda äj kal imtihăn kë liē parth rahī hai
Farida is studying for exams these days.

afzal aur farida cāē pī rahē haim
Afzal and Farida are drinking tea.

cäbī har jagah ḍhümiḍ̄̆, magar nahīm mil rahī
$I$ looked for the key everywhere, but ( 1 am) not finding it.
Continuous tenses do not occur with rahnă, 'to remain' as a sentence verb; the habitual present is used instead.

ميي لا بيور ديي دو سال سر ربتي بول ـ
maiṃ lāhaur mēm dō sāl sē rahtỉ hự̆
I have been living in Lahore for two years.
The continuous present is also used to describe a future action which has already begun, or which is considered as begun.

thik hai, rakh dō, maim̉ āp kē pās ā rahā hǜm
Okay, put down (the receiver), I am on my way to you.

## 616 Continuous past

The continuous past tense describes actions or states which were incomplete and in progress at a point in the past. The past tense of the auxiliary is used. The verb agrees with the subject. The form of the negative is nahīim (§417).

## Table 20: Continuous past tense of kamă

| Singular |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 1st person | هين كر ربا تها | maim kar rahā thā | I was doing.(m.) |
| 2nd person |  | maim kar rahï thī | I was doing. (f.) |
|  | توكر ربا تها | tū kar rahā thā | You were doing. (m.) |
|  | تو كر ربّ تهى | tū kar rahî thī | You were doing. (f.) |
| 3rd person | وهكر ربك تها | vo kar rahă thā | He , it was doing. (m.) |
|  | وهكر ربی تهى | vo kar rahi thī | She, it was doing. (f.) |
| Plural |  |  |  |
| 1st person | יهم كر ربی ته\% | ham kar rahè the | We were doing. (m.) |
|  |  | ham kar rahî thīm | We were doing.(f.) |
| 2nd person | تمكر ركّ ته | tum kar rahē thē | You were doing. (m.) |
|  | كر | tum kar rahī thüm | You were doing. (f.) |
|  | إپّ | āp kar rahee thē | You were doing. (m.) |
|  | آپّ كر ربی تهين | àp kar rahî thïm | You were doing. (f.) |
| 3rd person | وهك كر رّ ته | vo kar rahe thē | They were doing. (m.) |
|  | وهكر ربی تهی | vo kar rahī thïm | They were doing (f.) |

## Examples

بهائى كل گهر آ ربا تها جب بس خراب بو گیى -

## hhā kal ghar ā rahä thă, jah has xarāb hō gaī

Brother was coming home yesterday, when the bus broke down

farīda un dinṑ imtihān kē liē paṛh rahì thì
Farida was studying for exams (during) those days.
-انضل اور فريده چائُ پی رنی تهـ
afzal aur farida cāe $p \bar{p}$ rahē thē
Afzal and Farida were drinking tea.
جب گهر بيى آگ لگى تب بهم سو ربی تهـ -
jah ghar mēm äg lagī, tah ham sō rahē thē
At the time the fire broke out in the house, we were sleeping.
With the stative verb baithnā, 'to sit' the continuous tenses refer to the act of sitting, and not to the state of being seated.

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { maim baith rahï thī, ke kursì kā pāya tụ̂t gayā }
\end{aligned}
$$

I was just sitting down when the leg of the chair broke.

maim baithĭ hüì thî, jab kursi kā pāya tụut gayā
I was seated when the leg of the chair broke.

## 617 Other continuous tenses

The continuous condmonal tense is used to describe incomplete, continuing actions or states which may be happening at the time of speaking. The subjunctive auxiliary is used, and the verb agrees with the subject. The clause is introduced by words like sāyad, agar, mumkin hai, etc. ( $\$ 608$ ). The form of the negative is na (§417), as is always the case with subjunctive verbs.

شا يد بهائى إسیى وقت گه
Maybe brother is coming home right now.

## اكر نسرين كام كر ربی بو اُسي تكليف نـ دو ـ ـ <br> agar nasrin kām kar rahì hō, usē taklīf na dō <br> If Nasrin is working, don't bother her.

The continuous presumptive tense is used to describe incomplete, continuing actions or states which one presumes to be happening at the time of speaking The future tense of the auxiliary is used, and the verb agrees with the subject.

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { päm̆c haj gaē, hhā̄ is vaqt ghar ā rahă hō gā }
\end{aligned}
$$

It's five o'clock; brother must be coming home now.

```
نسرين إس سلسلغ بيى كام كر ربی بو گى -
nasrin is silsilē mēm kām kar rahī hō gī
```

Nasrin must be working in this connection.

The continuous irrealis is used to describe unrealized continuous actions or states. The imperfective participle of hōnā is the auxiliary, and the verb agrees with the subject.

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { اگگر وه آ ربا بوتا تو أُس كا خط سل گیا بوتا - } \\
& \text { agar vo ā rahā hōtā, tō us kā xat mil gayā hōtā } \\
& \text { If he were coming (on the way), we would have received his letter. }
\end{aligned}
$$

## 618 Root + saknā (ability, possibility)

The modal verb saknă shows the ability to perform an action, or the possibility of an event occurring. The verb phrase has the structure:

## VERB ROOT + inflected form of saknā

saknă, which is intransitive, determines the grammar of the sentence; in perfective tenses, saknä agrees with the subject and né is not used even if the verb root belongs to a transitive verb. The tense of saknā determines the form of the negative (negatives are shown in Table 13 on pages 88-89).

> بيرا بخّ
> mërā hacca cal saktā hai
> My child can walk

vahid bīmār hai, kal kī dāvat mēm nahīm ā sakē gā
Wahid is sick; he won't be able to come to tomorrow's party.

maim ye davā nahĭmin khā sakā, karvī hai
I couldn't take this medicine; it's (too) bitter.

āsmān mēm bādal chā rahē haim, bāris hō saktī hai
Clouds are gathering in the sky; it could rain.

## 619 Root + pānā (possibility)

The verb pān̄̄, 'to find' may be used as a modal, showing the possibility of an action dependent on circumstances (most often in negative sentences). The verb phrase has the structure:

> VERB ROOT + inflected form of pānā

Used as a modal, pānā is intransitive, and agrees with the subject.
vahīd masrūf hai, kal kī dāvat mēm nahïm à āāē gā
Wahid is busy; he can't manage to come to tomorrow's party.

baccōm nẽ itnã sōr macāyā ke ham ārām sē film na dēkh $p$ āē
The children made so much noise that we couldn't watch the film in peace.
In negative sentences with pänä, the oblique infinitive may be used instead of the root, if a second clause follows. The second clause usually contains a verb of motion. In this case, the negative immediately precedes pānā.

vo ēk machlī bhī pakarnē na pāyà thā ke us kā pāōḿ phisal gayā
He hadn't managed to catch a single fish, when his foot slipped.
pānā also occurs as a non-modal verb meaning 'to find', 'to get', whereas saknă only occurs as a modal. Although intransitive as a modal, pānă is transitive when used as a sentence verb.

> anjum nē imtihān mēñ acchē nambar pāē
> Anjum got good marks (good numbers) in the examination.

## 620 Root + cuknā (completion)

The modal verb cuknā shows completion of an action or event prior to a second action or event, which may be expressed in the sentence, or be the event of narration. It usually occurs in perfective tenses. The verb phrase has the structure:
VERB ROOT+ inflected form of cuknā
cuknā is sometimes translated as 'already', but it usually corresponds to an English pluperfect. cuknā, which is intransitive, determines the grammar of the sentence; thus in perfective tenses, cuknā agrees with the subject, and ne is not used even if the verb root belongs to a transitive verb.

and̄hērā hōnē lagā. cirịyām apnā sām kā git gā kar xāmō§ hō cuki thüm̀
It began to get dark. The birds had sung their evening song and become silent. (Narang, Readings)

ham gărị bēcc cukē thē jab malik sähib nē daryäft kiyā
We had already sold the car when Malik Sahib inquired (about it).

## 621 Compound verbs

Compound verbs are nuanced verb sequences with a structure similar to ROOT + saknā or ROOT + cuknā:
VERB ROOT + inflected VECTOR VERB

Vector verbs lose their lexical meaning, and contribute various nuances to the meaning of the main verb, as illustrated below. The commonest vector verbs are jānă, dềnā and lēnā. Compound verbs are described in Chapter 7.

- يم خط بِلْ هئ
ye xat paṛhiē
Please read this letter. (non-compound verb)
- ي~ خط لرُه
ye xat paṛh dijiee
Please read this letter (to me). (compound verb, vector dēnā)
- يم خط پِّه ليجئ
ye xat paṛh lijiee
Please read this letter (to yourself). (compound verb, vector lēnā)


## VERB FORMS BASED ON THE IMPERFECTIVE PARTICIPLE

With the exception of the irrealis, verb structures based on the imperfective participle have habitual aspect: they describe actions or states which occur generally or regularly. Imperfective tenses have the following structure:
imperfective participle + inflected auxilary verb
For an overview of habitual tenses, see Table 13 on pages $88-89$. For the auxiliary verb hōnā, see §605-§606.

## 622 Imperfective participles alone

## Irrealis

Imperfective participles without auxiliaries are used in both clauses of conditional sentences to describe a failed condition, or a condition which is impossible to meet ( $\$ 609$, 'Unfulfilled/unfulfillable conditions'). The imperfective participle may also be used in place of the subjunctive to show impossible conditions ( $\$ 609$, 'Unfulfilled wishes, conjecture and regret').

## Narrative imperfective

The imperfective participle is used without an auxiliary in narration. Passages with verbs in the narrative imperfective typically start with a verb in the habitual past ( $\$ 624$ ), describing events occurring regularly in the past. As the narrative continues, the auxiliary is dropped, and only the imperfective participle remains.
vo aksar sabaq ratnē sē bhägtē thē. khētōrin aur jangalöm kī sair kartê, curä
kar gannē yà phal khātē, yā phir rèl gārịi kā tamāsā dēkhtē
He often used to play hooky from memorizing (his) lessons. He would walk in the fields or forests, steal sugar cane or fruit and eat it, or (again) watch the splendid sight of a train. (Narang, Reader)

## 623 Habitual present

The habitual present tense (Table 21, on p. 119) describes actions or states which occur generally or regularly in the present. It may also be used to describe a close future event.

The present tense of the auxiliary is used, and the verb agrees with the subject. See $\S 1009$ for agreement with mixed subjects. The form of the negative
is nahīm ( $\S 417$ ). In negative sentences, the auxiliary may be dropped. The feminine plural suffix -tim occurs in the habitual present when the auxiliary is dropped in negative sentences: سنتي suntïn, , كرتي, kartimi.

Table 21: Habitual present tense of karnā
Singular

| 1st person | بيل كرتا بول ميي كرتي بون | maimi kartā hūm maim kartī hūm | I do. (m.) <br> Ido. (f.) |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 2nd person | توكرتا | tū kartā hai | You do. (m.) |
|  | توهكتى | tū karti hai | You do. (f.) |
| 3rd person | وهكركّا | vo kartā hai | He , it does. (m.) |
|  | وهكرتى برّ | vo kartī hai | She, it does. (f.) |
| Plural |  |  |  |
| 1st person | سهم كرتخ بيو | ham kartē haim | We do. (m.) |
|  | سمكرتى | ham karti haim | We do. (f.) |
| 2nd person | تمrرتغ بو | tum kartē hō | You do. (m.) |
|  | تهكرتى | tum kartio hō | You do. (f.) |
|  | آبپ كرتغ | āp kartê haim | You do. (m.) |
|  | آبپ كرتى | ăp kartī haim | Youdo. (f.) |
| 3rd person | وهكرتر بري | vo kartè haim | They do. (m.) |
|  | وهكرتى بهي | vo kartỉ haim | They do. (f.) |

## Examples

بهم عام طور ير شام كو باغ سيى بئُهتخ بيس -
ham ām taur par sām kō bāy mēn baithtê haim
We generally sit in the garden in the evening.

- يهان سرديون بيي برف يُلتى يـ
yahăm̉ sardiyṑn mēm baraf partī hai
It snows (snow falls) here in the winter.
Compare
gar(a)m kaprẹ pehnō, baraf par rahï hai
Wear warm clothes; it is snowing.

يم بس صدر نهسي جاتى
ye bas sadar nahīm jātī
This bus doesn't go to the town centre.
بهم فرش ير سوتر بي -
ham fars par sōtē haim
We sleep on the floor.
مچجهر نقصان ده بوتخ بيى -
macchar nuqsändeh hōtē haim
Mosquitoes are harmful.

## Immediate future

ماده نخ نر سی كها: خبردار ، دشمن آتا ير -

## māda nē nar sē kahā: xabardār, duśman ātā hai

The female said to the male: watch out, the enemy approaches. (Mazhab-e-Isq)

## 624 Habitual past

The habitual past tense (Table 22, on p. 121) describes actions or states which occurred generally or regularly in the past. The past tense of the auxiliary is used, and the verb agrees with the subject. Sec $\$ 1009$ for agreement with mixed subjects. The form of the negative is nahïn ( $\$ 417$ ). The habitual past is often translated as 'used to (VERB)', but is also translated 'verb-ed', 'was/were (VERB)ing', depending on the context.

With stative verbs (verbs describing a state), such as baithnā, 'to sit', lettnā, 'to lie', sōnā, 'to sleep', rahnā 'to remain', and cähnā, 'to want' the distinction between past habitual and past continuous states is not very strong.

## Examples

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { bhāı } \kappa \text { sām kē pāmic bajē ghar ātā thā, ab chē bajē ātā hai }
\end{aligned}
$$

Brother used to come home at 5 in the evening, now he comes at 6 .

garmiyōm mēm ham şām kō bā $\mathbf{\gamma}$ mē̃n baithtê thē
In the summer we sat/used to sit in the garden in the evening.

## Table 22: Habitual past tense of karnā

## Singular



## (Examples)


vo kisī zamänē mēn vazir hōtē thē
At some previous time he used to be a minister.
جب بيي دبلي بيي تهمي تب قرول باغ بيس ربنتي تهي -
jab main dehlì mém thī tab qarơl bāy mēm rahtí thì
When I was in Delhi, I lived in Karol Bagh.

- بم فرش ير سوتـ تهـ
ham fars par sōte the
We used to sleep/were sleeping on the floor.
The habitual past may be used in narration to describe events occurring regularly in the past. As the narrative continues, the auxiliary is often dropped, and only the imperfective participle remains (narrative imperfective, §622).


## 625 Other habitual tenses

The habitual condtrional tense is used to describe actions or states which may occur generally or regularly in the present (present possibility). The subjunctive of the auxiliary is used. The clause is introduced by words like sāyad, agar, mumkin hai, etc. The form of the negative used is na (\$417), as is always the case with subjunctive verbs. The verb agrees with the subject.

شايد دنشى روز آتا بو ، شايد بر دوسرــ> دن آتا بو -
sāyad munsí rōz ātā $h o ̄$, sāyad har dūsrè din ătā hō
Maybe the clerk comes daily; maybe he comes every second day.

mumkin hai ke vo lōg kisī aur sarak par rahtē hṑm
It's possible that those people live on some other street.
The habitual presumptive tense is used to describe actions or states which one presumes to occur generally or regularly in the present. The future tense of the auxiliary is used. The verb agrees with the subject.

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { دنشثى روز آتا بو گًا ـ } \\
& \text { munsí rōz àtā hō gă } \\
& \text { The clerk must come daily. }
\end{aligned}
$$


Those people must live on some other street.
The habitual rrealis is used to describe unrealized or impossible habitual actions or states. The imperfective participle of hōnā is the auxiliary. The verb agrees with the subject.
اگر سنشى روز آتا بوتا تو سارا كام بو گيا بوتا -

## agar munsí rōz ätâ hoôtã, tô sărā kām hō gayā hōtā

If the clerk came daily, all the work would have been done.

## 626 Imperfective participle + rahnā (iterative)

The imperfective participle occurs in a phrase with an inflected form of rahnă, 'to remain', 'to stay', showing continuation or repetition of an action or state. rahnă, which is intransitive, determines the grammar of the sentence; thus in perfective tenses, nē is not used even if the participle belongs to a transitive verb. Both the participle and rahnā agree with the subject. This construction
does not occur (a) in the negative, (b) in continuous tenses. With stative verbs, the perfective participle is used instead (\$637).

جهيل ميي پانیى
jhīl mēm pānī kī satah kam hōtī rahtī hai
The water level in the lake keeps on going down.
كتّا رات بهر بهونكتا ربا - نيند اُرُ گكي -
kuttā rāt bhar bhaumiktā rahā. nümd ur gaī
The dog went on barking the whole night. It was impossible to sleep.
The imperfective participle of jānā with rahnā has the idiomatic meaning 'to be lost' (to remain gone). It usually occurs in a past tense.

èk martaba jab mēri unglī kā ēk challā candā dhērī mēm̀ jātă rahā thā ...
Once when a ring on my finger was lost in (playing) blind man's buff ...
(Rusvã, Umrào Jān Adā)

## 627 Imperfective participle $+j \overline{\mathrm{D}} \mathrm{a}$ (progression)

The imperfective participle occurs in a phrase with an inflected form of jānā, 'to go', showing the (a) deliberate continuation of an action, and (b) the progression of a condition leading to a change. jānā, which is intransitive, determines the grammar of the sentence; in perfective tenses, $\overline{\mathrm{n}} \overline{\mathrm{E}}$ is not used even if the verb root belongs to a transitive verb. Both the participle and jānā agree with the subject.

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { واه واه ! گاتم جائتي } \\
& \text { vāh vāh! gātê jāiye! }
\end{aligned}
$$

Bravo, bravo! Please go on singing!

itnā bhì gătē na jäiyē, dēkh lijiē ke kōī pasand kar rahā hai
Don't go on singing so long; check whether anyone is enjoying it.

agar jhīl mēm pān̄̄i kī satah kam hō̄ī jāē, tō jhīl sūkh jāē gī
If the water level in the lake continues to go down, the lake will dry up.

## 628 imperfective participle used as an adjective

Imperfective participles may be used as adjectives. See $\S 901$.

## VERB FORMS BASED ON THE PERFECTIVE PARTICIPLE

Verb structures based on the perfective participle have punctual aspect: they describe actions or states which occur once in the past. Perfective tenses have the following structure:
perfective participle + inflected auxiliary verb
For an overview of punctual tenses, see Table 13 on pages $88-89$. For the auxiliary verb hōnā, see §605-§606.

## 629 Agreement in perfective tenses

Verbs in non-perfeetive tenses agree with the subject noun or pronoun. (See $\S 1007-\S 1010$ for a detailed discussion of subject-verb agreement.)

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { زابدكل انتحان دـي Sا - انجم } \\
& \text { anjum imtihān dē gī } \\
& \text { Anjum will take the examination. } \\
& \text { Zahid will take the examination. }
\end{aligned}
$$

In perfective tenses, the agreement pattern depends on whether the verb is intransitive or transitive. (See $\S 801$ for a definition of transitivity.) Intransitive verbs agree with the subject. The subject is in the nominative case

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { anjum imthăn mém kàmyăb ho gai } \\
& \text { Anjum passed the the examination. }
\end{aligned}
$$

Transitive verbs agree with nominative direct objects. The subject takes the postposition nē (\$510).

```
انجهم ن< استحان ديا - 
anjum nē imtihān diyā
Anjum took the examination.
زابد ن استحان ديا -
zāhid nē imtihān diyà
Zahid took the examination.
```

If the object as well is followed by a postposition, most commonly $\mathbf{k o}$ ( $\$ 505$ ), the verb is masculine singular. (A postposition always prevents agreement between a noun or pronoun and a verb.)

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { - بي نغ كهانى يُرْهى - } \\
& \text { maim nē kahānī parhī } \\
& \text { I read the/a story. }
\end{aligned}
$$

First and second person pronouns take the nominative case when followed by né. Third person pronouns take the oblique case, and third person plural pronouns
 which occur only before nē. See Table 6 in §211.

## 630 Simple past

The perfective participle is used alone, without an auxiliary, in the simple pas tense. (See $\S 604$ for the forms of the perfective participle.) The simple past shows the completion of a single action or state at a point in the past, without reference to prior or subsequent events. An adverb of time may focus on the time the event happened; an adverb of place may focus on where it happened, or an adverb of manner, how it happened. When the context of the event or action is not the focus, the simple past is typically used in narration.

The simple past is a perfective tense. If the verb is transitive, it agrees with a nominative direct object ( $\S 629$ ). If it is intransitive, it agrees with the subject.

## Examples

وه دير تكى وبان ربا -
vo dēr tak vahăḿ rahā
They stayed there until (it was) very late.

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { اوركهال تُارك }
\end{aligned}
$$

...aur us nē phurtī sē haddiyā̀m jöror dìmin. dūsrē nē gōst, xūn aur khāl tayyār
 kahà: 'arē nāsamajh, ye s̄ē hai.'
...And he connected the bones with dexterity. The second prepared the flesh, blood and hide. The third stepped forward in order to put life in the tiger. The illiterate one stopped him and said, ' O fool, this is a tiger.' (Narang, Readings)
طالب علمون نخ امتتحان ديا -
tālib ilmōm̉ nẽ imtihān diyā
The students took the examination.

The form of the negative (§417) is na. nahïm is also used when the focus of the sentence is on the verb, i.e., the verb contains the most important information in the sentence. In the examples below, the focus is marked with italics.
أُنهول ن ان پِرْه كى بات نـ مانى -
unhōmin nē an parh kī bāt na mānī

They did not accept what the uneducated person said.

The verb hōnā has two past forms: the past tense thā ( $\sim$ thē $\sim$ thī $\sim$ thīm) and the perfective participle hūā ( hūē $\sim h \bar{u} \bar{i} \sim h \bar{u} \dot{m}$ ). thā shows a state, but hūā shows a transition.

جنورى بيى بوسم كافى طْهندا تها -
janvarĭ mēen mausam kāfí thanḍā thā
The weather was pretty cold in January.

jah mausam thandā hūā tah lōg gar(a)m kaprẹ pehnnē lagē
When the weather became cold, people began to wear warm clothes.

## 631 Immediate past

The immediate past tense, also called the present perfect (Table 23, p. 127) describes an action or state which is complcted, but which still affects the present situation. Very often it refers to events which have recently been completed. The present tense of the auxiliary is used and the form of the negative is nahirim. The immediate past is a perfective tense; if the verb is transitive, it agrees with the direct object unless the object is marked by kö (§629). If it is intransitive, it agrees with the subject.

## Examples

بارش بوئى يّه ، سرِى گيلى بيـ -
bāris hṻ hai, sarak gili hai
It has rained; the street is wet.

It has not rained for some time (and) considerable loss has occurred

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { kāfí arsē sē bäris nahī̀m hūu, xāsā nuqsān hō gayà hai }
\end{aligned}
$$

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { آج صبح بس نهيي آىى - } \\
& \text { àj subah (~ subh) bas nahïm } \overline{a x} \\
& \text { This morning the bus did not come. }
\end{aligned}
$$

Table 23: Immediate past of jānā

| Singular |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Ist person | بيى گيا بول | maim gayā hüm | I have gone. (m.) |
|  | هيي كئى بول | maimin gaī hūṃ | I have gone. (f.) |
| 2nd person | توگّ | tū gayā hai | You have gone. (m.) |
|  | تو گئى | tū gaî hai | You have gone. (f.) |
| 3rd person | وه گيا | vo gayä hai | He, it has gone. (m.) |
|  | وه كئى | vo gaï hai | She, it has gone. (f.) |
| Plural |  |  |  |
| Ist person | كئّ شيور | ham gaē haim | We have gone. (m.) |
|  |  | ham gaĭ haim | We have gone. (f.) |
| 2nd person |  | tum gaê hō | You have gone. (m.) |
|  | كّك | tum gaī hō | You have gone. (f.) |
|  | آָׁ | àp gaè haim | You have gone. (m.) |
|  | آبپ \#ّى | ăp gaī haim | You have gone. (f.) |
| 3rd person | وه | vo gaê haim | They have gone. (m.) |
|  | وه گّي بيّ | vo gai haim | They have gone. (f.) |

If one is not concerned with a connection between the past event and some other event, but only with the fact that something happencd (or when, how or where it happened), the simple past is used:

If the past event or action no longer affects the present, but the time it happened (its temporal context) is relevant; or it is connected to a prior event, the remote past is used ( $\S 632$ ).

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { كل بارش بوئى تهي - } \\
& \text { kal bäris hūi thi } \\
& \text { It rained yesterday. }
\end{aligned}
$$

Stative verbs are used in the immediate past to express states which commenced with an action or event in the past, and which continue into the present. (These may also be considered as adjectival perfective participles with deleted hūā ~ hūè ~hūī, compare §907.)

najma bāy mēm̀ baithī hai
Najma is sitting in the garden (she has sat down and is still sitting).
حاسل فرش پر ليما بـ -
hämid farśs par lẹtā hai
Hamid is lying on the floor (he has lain down and is still lying).

## 632 Remote past

The remote past (also called the past perfect; see Table 24, below) shows that an action was completed in the past and no longer affects the current situation. The action may have been completed within a specified period, in the remote past, or prior to a second event. The past tense of the auxiliary is used and the form of the negative is nahim. If the verb is intransitive, it agrees with the subject. If it is transitive, it agrees with a nominative direct object ( $\$ 629$ ).

Table 24: Remote past of jānā

| Singular |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 1st person | بيّ | maimin gayā thā | 1 went, had gone. (m.) |
|  | بين گّى تهى | maim gaì thì | I went, had gone. (f.) |
| 2nd person | تو گيا تها | tū gayā thä | You went, had gone. (m.) |
|  | تو گثى تهى | tū gai thī | You went, had gone. (f.) |
| 3 rd person | وه گیا تها | vo gayă thă | $\mathrm{He}, \mathrm{it}$ has gone.(m.) |
|  | وه گئى تهى | vo gai thi | She, it has gone. (f.) |
| Plural |  |  |  |
| 1st person | كثّ تها | ham gaè the | We went, had gone. (m.) |
|  | \% | ham gaĭ thīm | We went, had gone.(f.) |
| 2nd person | تهمث* ته | tum gaè thē | You went, had gone. (m.) |
|  | ككّ تهى | tum gail thirm | You went, had gone. (f.) |
|  |  | àp gaé thè | You went, had gone. (m.) |
|  | آبپ كئى تهي | àp gaī thīm | You went, had gone. (f.) |
| 3 rd person |  | vo gae the | They went, had gone.(m.) |
|  | وه گئى تهين | vo gaī thïn | They went, had gone. (f.) |

## Examples


unnīs sau bānavē mēm mainn nē lāhaur kā safar kiyā thă
In 1992, I travelled to Lahore.
بهائى عيد پر گهر آيا تها ، أور ابب واپٍس گيا يه -
bhāi īd par ghar āyā thā, aur ab vāpas gayā hai
Brother came home at Eid, and has now gone back.
However, if one wants to say explicitly that something was completed before a second thing happened, it is preferable to use verb root + cuknā in the remote past (§620).

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { جب بهائى گهر آ چچكا تها ، شادى كى تيّاريان شروع بو گيّي - } \\
& \text { jab bhāı ghar ā cukā thā, sādī kī tayyāriyām̀ Surū hō gaīm } \\
& \text { When brother had come home, preparations for the wedding began. }
\end{aligned}
$$

## 633 Other punctual tenses

The conditional past tense is used to describe actions or states which may have occurred in the past. The subjunctive of the auxiliary is used. The clause will be introduced by words like sayad, agar, mumkin hai, etc. (\$608). The form of the negative used is na (\$417). If the verb is intransitive, it agrees with the subject. If it is transitive, it agrees with a nominative direct object (§629).
mumkin hai ke un lōgōmin nē ghar badlā hō
It's possible that those people have moved.
شايد نشنى نی گیا بو -
sāyad muns̃i na gayā $h o ̄$
Maybe the clerk has not left.
The presumptive past tense is used to describe actions or states which one presumes to have occurred in the past. The future tense of the auxiliary is used. If the verb is intransitive, it agrees with the subject. If it is transitive, it agrees with a nominative direct object (\$629).


```
munsī ghar gayā hō gā, daftar xălī hai
The clerk must have left; the office is empty.
```

أس نخ ضرور آبپ كى بات نحسوس كى بو گى -
us nē zarür ăp kī băt mahsūs kī hō gi
He certainly must have been hurt by what you said.
The past irrealis is used to describe unrealized or impossible past actions or states. The imperfective participle of hōnā is the auxiliary. If the verb is intransitive, it agrees with the subject. If it is transitive, it agrees with a nominative direct object ( $\$ 629$ ).

## agar us nē mērī băt mahsüs ki hō̄̃, tō zarūr kuch kahtā

If he had been hurt by what I said, he would certainly have said something.

## 634 Derived passive

Transitive verbs can be passivized by changing them to the construction:
PERFECTIVE PARTICIPLE + inflected form of jān̄a, 'to go'
jānā, which is intransitive, determines the grammar of the sentence; nē is not used, and both the participle and jānā agree with the subject. Note that the direct object of the original transitive sentence becomes the subject of the passive one.

Active

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { vo tāmīr kä kàm vaqt par pürà karêm gè }
\end{aligned}
$$

They will complete the construction work on time.
$\rightarrow$ Passive $\quad-\quad$ تعمير كاكام وتت پر هوراكيا جائر tämïr kā käm vaqt par pürä kiyā jāē gā The construction work will be completed on time.

Active $\quad$ - جادوگر ن بُّيان جورُ ديـ
jādūgar nē haḍdiyām jọ̄r dī̀n
The sorcerer connected the bones.
$\rightarrow$ Passive $\quad-\quad$ بُّيان جورُ دى گئين
haḍdiyäme jọ̆r dí gaïm
The bones were connected.
If the action has an instrument, it is marked by $\mathbf{k e}$ zariē or $\mathbf{k e}$ hāth (preferred if the instrument is human), or sè.

tāmïr mazdüröñ kẽ zariè pūrī kī jāe gi
The construction will be completed by the labourers.

haḍliyām jādū kē zariè (jādū sē) jọ̄r đī gaīm
The bones were connected by means of magic.

## 635 Incapacity

Both transitive and intransitive verbs may be passivized to show incapacity, usually in negative sentences. The person (or animate creature) who is incapable of the action is expressed as an instrument marked by sē. Note that if an intransitive is passivized, there is no subject. The verb is masculine singular by default.

mujh sē ēk hī din mēm itnā kām nahīm kiyā jâtā
I can't possibly do so much work in just one day.

kyā tum sē aisē jūtē pahnē hūē itnī dūr cală jāē gã?
Willyou be able to walk so far wearing such shoes?
When jānā is passivized to show incapacity, its regular perfective participle (jäyã) is used.

أس سح آد ها بيل بهى جا جايا نـ
us sē ādhā mīl bhī jăyă na gayā
He couldn't goeven half a mile.

## 636 Perfective participle + kamā (habit or practice)

The uninflected (masculine singular) perfective participle occurs in a phrase with an inflected form of karnā, 'to do', showing an action that is done as a practice or habitually. It is not used in punctual (perfective) tenses.

برائ كرم آياكريى !
barāē karam āyā karē̄n!
Please keep coming!

يون تو اكثر آپ كى آواز سناكرتى تهی -
yūm tō aksar āp kīāvāz sună kartī thī
Well, I often used to listen to your voice. (Rusvā, Umräo Jän Adā)
لكهنؤ بيى ايسـ رباملـ دن رات بيواكرتـ بيى -
lakhnau mēm aisē muămlē din rät hūā kartē haim
These things go on night and day in Lucknow. (Rusvā, Umrāō Jān Adă)
The regular perfective participle of $j a \bar{n} a \bar{a}$ is used in this construction.

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { - بين ركشـ سع جاياكرتى تهى - } \\
& \text { maim riksē sè jāyā kartit thí } \\
& \text { I always used to go by rickshaw. }
\end{aligned}
$$

## 637 Perfective participle + rahnä (continuation)

The perfective participle of stative verbs occurs in a phrase with an inflected form of rahna, 'to remain', 'to stay', showing the continuation of a state. This is similar to the construction emperfective participle + rahnā ( $\$ 626$ ), which is used with non-stative verbs. rahnā, which is intransitive, determines the grammar of the sentence; thus in perfective tenses, $n \overline{\bar{c}}$ is not used even if the verb root belongs to a transitive verb. Both the participle and rahnä agree with the subject.

> بهولا سـب كحجه ديكه ربا تها ، ير پیه بی سادهي بيئها ربا -
bhōlä sab kuch dēkh rahā thā, par cup hī sādhē baithä rahā
Bhola was watching everything, but he went on keeping mum and doing nothing. (Prem Chand, Gödān)

## 638 Perfective participle used as an adjective

Perfective participles may be used as adjectives. See $\S 901$.

## INFINITIVES

The infinitive may be used as a verbal noun ( $\$ 639$ ) and as a request form ( $\$ 610$ ). A variety of infinitival constructions is made with verbs, postpositions or the agent suffix vālā ( $\S 311$ ). These constructions may be divided into two groups: (a) impersonal constructions with nominative case infinitives, and (b) personal constructions with oblique case infinitives plus a postposition or sentence verb. The first group includes three common impersonal constructions showing advisability, necessity and obligation. The second includes six personal
constructions showing the agent, impending action, beginning, permission, purpose, and negative assertion.

## 639 Infinitives as verbal nouns

The infinitive is basically a verbal noun. It may occur in the nominative case as the subject of the sentence or, in the oblique case, be followed by postpositions.

أُس كـر ساته ميرا جانا بهى ايكى ضرورى بات تهى -
us kē sāth mērā jānä bhī êk zarūrī băt thī
My going with him was also necessary. (Rusvā, Umrāō Jăn Adā

```
پیی
pīnè kā pānī
drinking water (water for drinking)
```

The infinitive + mēm means 'at (verb)-ing', 'to (VERB)'. See also $\$ 520$.
ايسا بلاس ديكهن بيى خوبصورت نـر -
aisā libās dēkhnē mēm̉ xūbsūrat hai
Such clothes are beautiful to look at.
The infinitive + sé means 'from (VERB)-ing', 'to (VERB)'.

găriyṑn kē ānē jānē sē sarak par đhūl ựīi rahtī̀ hai
There are always clouds of dust in the street from the traffic (coming and going of cars).

Compound postpositions ( $\$ 527-532$ ) are also used with infinitives.

ghar chợrnē sē pahlē darvāzè mēñ tālā lagā dēṇ
Before leaving the house, (you) should lock the door

acchă muäsara banänē kē liē acchī tālìm zarūrī hai
In order to build a good society, good education is necessary.
The infinitive is also used in the nominative case with cähnā, 'to want', sīkhnā, 'to learn', jānnā, 'to know (how)', and ānā, 'to come', 'to know'. The infinitive optionally agrees with the noun it refers to (sair, sitār and gärī in the examples below) like an adjective

maim sair karnā (~ karnī) cāhtā hūmin
I want to go for a walk.
مين ستار بجانا (بجانى) سيكه ربا بون -
maim sitār bajānā (~ bajānī) sỉkh rahā hūm
I am learning how to play the sitar

vo gārī calānā (~ calãnī) jāntā hai
He knows how to drive a car.
ānā occurs in impersonal constructions ( $\$ 641$ ), meaning 'to know'.

us kō gărịi calānā (~ calānī) âtā (āta) hai
He knows how to drive a car.

640 Infinitives as request forms
The infinitive may be used as a neutral request form. See $\S 610$.

## CONSTRUCTIONS WITH NOMINATIVE CASE INFINITIVES

## 641 Impersonal constructions

Impersonal constructions are sentence types in which the verb agrees with the logical direct object of the sentence, while the 'real' or logical subject of the sentence (if expressed) is marked by the postposition kō (§505) or its alternate forms ( $\$ 210$ ). Impersonal constructions occur very frequently in Urdu. (See $\S 506$ for a treatment of 'experiencer' impersonal constructions.)

## Personal.

مبي سیر كرنا (كرنى) چابتا بول -
maim sair karnä (~ karnī) cähtā hūmi
$I$ want to go for a walk.

fârüq pyāz kē pakōrē pasand kartā hai
Faruq likes onion fritters.

IMPERSONAL

- مجهر سير كرنا (كرنى) چابنئ
mujhē sair karnā ( $\sim$ karnī) cähiē
Ishould go for a walk (to me the going for a walk is wanted).
فاروق كو پياز
fānūq kō pyāz kē pakōrē pasand haim
Faruq likes onion fritters (fritters are pleasing to Faruq).
In the previous example, the agreement between the verb and the direct object (pakōrē) can be seen.

Deletion of the subject is common.

ye pakōrē pasand haim
(I) like these fritters.

## 642 Infinitive + hai (necessity)

The impersonal construction inFintrve + hai shows the necessity of an action. The subject, if expressed, is followed by $k 0$ ( ( $\$ 506$ ) (or its alternate forms [ $\$ 210]$ ). Transitive infinitives may take objects of their own, in which case they usually agree with those objects in gender and number, like an adjective. (However the force of the agreement weakens in longer sentences, and there are dialects of Urdu in which the infinitives remain masculine singular.) The agreement of hai with the object of the infinitive is obligatory.

> بجهـ درخواست دينى (دينا) بّ -
mujhē darxāst dēnĭ (~ dēnã) hai
I have to submit the application.
كل آپ كو درخواست دينى (دينا) تهى -
$\bar{a} p$ kō kal darxäst dēnī (~ dēnā) thī
You were supposed tosubmit the application yesterday
-Here agreement of the verb is visible because thĭ is marked for gender.
أُس فوراً درخواست دينى (دينا) بو گى -
usē fauran darxäst dēnī (~ dēnā) hō $g \bar{i}$
He will have to submit the application right away.
mujhēdonomim imtihānomin kē liè parhnā hai
mujhē donom imtihānomin kē liè partnā
have tosudy for bo examinations.
-Here there is no agreement, because imtihān is followed by a postposition.
In the everyday Urdu of Pakistan, the logical subject of the sentence may be followed either by kõ or by nē: maim nē dinar pe jānā thā, 'I was supposed to go (out) to dinner.' In dialects which have this option, the use of kō tends to be restricted to external circumstances which are not under the speaker's control, whereas $n \overline{\mathbf{e}}$ refers to circumstances permitting internal choice, or neutral circumstances. This usage is not correct in the standard Urdu of Delhi.

In some dialects of Urdu, inanimate subjects do not require kō:

- مصيبت آني
musibatănī hai
Misfortune is bound to strike.
The future or past forms of hai may be used to show future or past necessity. While agreement of the infinitive is optional, agreement of the verb is obligatory.
مجهـ برتن مانجهنغ بي -
mujhē bartan māànjhnē haim
I have to wash the dishes.
-mänijhnee and haim both agree with bartan, which is masculine plural.
تمهير صصت برتن سانجهن (سانجهنا) تهـ

You were supposed to wash the dishes (this) morning.
The reproach may be softened by omitting the subject. bartan will stand first in the sentence.
برتن صبع مانجهنغ (مانجهنا) تهـ -
bartan subah ( $\sim$ subh) mämijhnnē ( $\sim$ mämijhnā) thē
(You) were supposed to wash the dishes (this) morning.
The form of the negative is nahīm. If the sentence is in the present, hai may be dropped.

āp kō fauran paisa vāpas nahī̀n karnā (hai)
You don't need to return the money right away.

mujhë fauran paisa vāpas nahīm̉ karnä thā
Ididn't need to return the money right away.


##  mujhē fauran paisē vāpas nahīm karnē ( $\sim$ kamā) thē Ididn't need to return the money right away.

## 643 Infinitive + cāhiē (advisability)

The impersonal construction infinitrve + căhiē shows the advisability of an action. The subject, if expressed, is followed by kō ( $\$ 506$ ) (or its alternate forms ( $\$ 210$ )). Transitive infinitives may take objects of their own, in which case they usually agree with those objects in gender and number, like an adjective. (However the force of the agreement weakens in longer sentences, and there are dialects of Urdu in which the infinitives remain masculine singular.) The (number) agreement of cähiee with the object of the infinitive is however obligatory.
cāhie is historically an old passive form meaning 'is wished', 'is necessary'.


```
    (mujhē) cīnī xarī̀nī (~ xarīdnā) cāhiē
    (I) should buy sugar.
```

-xaridnā optionally agrees with cinĩ, which is feminine.
أُس انُّـ خريدنِ (خريدنا) چابئيي -
usé andè xaridnè ( $\sim$ xaridnă) cähiëm
He should buy eggs.
The past forms of hai may be used to show advisability or necessity in the past. While agreement of the infinitive is optional, agreement of the verb is obligatory.

(mujhē) kal andē xaridnē ( $\sim$ xaridnā) cāhiē thē
I should havebought eggs yesterday.
-Note that because the is marked to show the plural, the plural marker for căhiè becomes unnecessary.

تمهيu
tumbḕín kal cīnī xarīdnī (~ xarīdnă) cāhiē thī
You should have bought sugar yesterday.

The preceding reproach can be softened by omitting the subject. cinī will stand first in the sentence.

چینیى

(You) should have bought sugar yesterday.

āp $k o ̄ i m t i h a ̄ n ~ k e ̄ ~ l i e ̄ ~ p a ب ̣ h n a ̃ ~ c a ̈ h i e ̄ ~$
You ought to study for the examination.
-Here there is no agreement, because imtihān is followed by a postposition.
The form of the negative is nahīm.
آپ كو ايسى باتيى كرنى (كَرنا) نههي چابئين !
āp kōaisē hātēn் karnī (karnā) nahīm cähièm̀!
You shouldn't say such things!
بحجه وقت ضائع كرنا نهيي یابئُ تها -
mujhē vaqt zāē karnā nahimin cāhiêe thā
I shouldn't have wasted the time.

## 644 Infinitive + parnā (obligation, lack of cholce)

The impersonal construction $\mathbb{N}$ finitive + an inflected form of parnā shows lack of choice concerning an action. The subject, if expressed, is followed by $k=0$ (or its alternate forms). Transitive infinitives may take objects of their own, in which case they usually agree with those objects in gender and number, like an adjective. (However the force of the agreement weakens in longer sentences, and there are dialects of Urdu in which the infinitives remain masculine singular.) The agreement of parnā with the object of the infinitive is obligatory.
 (mujhē) ye karvī davā khänī (~ khănă) paṛị hai (I) must take this bitter medicine.

(hamḕm) cär mīl calnē (~ calnā) parēén gē
(We) must walk four miles.

(tumhē $\dot{m}$ ) imtihān kē liē paب̣hnā parē gã, nahīm tō nākăm hō jāō gē
(You) must study for the examination, otherwise you will fail.
-Here there is no agreement, because imtihān is followed by a postposition.
In more complex sentences, the agreement of the infinitive is optional, however agreement of the verb is obligatory (see example below).

The form of the negative depends on the tense of parmā (see Table 13 on pages 88-89).

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { mujhē paisē fauran vāpas karnă na parē } \\
& \text { I wasn't obliged to return the money right away. }
\end{aligned}
$$

## CONSTRUCTIONS WITH OBLIQUE CASE INFINITIVES

645 Oblique infinitive + vālā
The construction: obliQue nifintive + vālä shows (a) the agent of an action, (b) an imminent action or event. The construction also occurs adjectivally, modifying a noun.

(xat kē) bhëjnē välē kä pata kyā hai?
What is the address of the sender (of the letter)?

kistī bhamivar mēñ đūūnē vălī hai
The boat is about to sink in a whirlpool. (Narang, Readings)
كركتط كهيلن والخ كهالا
karikaṭ khēlnē vālè khilạrị xusi manä rahē haim
The cricket players are celebrating.
The last example is equivalent to a relative construction with $\mathbf{j o}$ :

$j \bar{j}$ karikaṭ khēl rahē thē vo xuSí manā rahē haim
Those who were playing cricket are celebrating.

## 646 Oblique infinitive $+\mathbf{k o}$

The construction: OBLQUE INFINITVE + kö shows (a) an impending action or event (similar to meaning (b) of the obliQue infinitive + vālä (§645)), and (b) purpose (similar to obliQue infintrive $+\mathbf{k e}$ liè ).

إس لزكى كى شادى بون كو بيه -

## is larkī kī şādi hōnē kō hai

This girl's wedding is taking place soon.
Compare
إس لزُكى كى شادى بونٍ والى يه -
is lậkī kī sādī hōnē vā̄i hai
This girl's wedding is taking place soon.

- هrer
mujhē kuch karnē kō dō
Give me something to do.
Compare

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { سجه كجه كرن كم لـُ دو - } \\
& \text { mujhē kuch kamè kē liè dō } \\
& \text { Give me something to do. (PURPOSE) }
\end{aligned}
$$

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { - بيى ن } \\
& \text { maim nē sunā hai ke haṛtā hōnc̄ kō hai } \\
& \text { I've heard that a strike is about to begin. }
\end{aligned}
$$

## 647 Oblique infinitive + lagnā (commenced event)

The construction: obleuve infintrve + lagnā shows the beginning of an action or event. lagnā, which is intransitive, determines the grammar of the sentence, and $n \bar{e}$ is not used even if the infinitive belongs to a transitive verb.

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { كشتنى بهنور ميی ذُوبنغ لگَى - } \\
& \text { kistī bhañvar mēñ đưubnē lagī }
\end{aligned}
$$

The boat began to sink in the whirlpool.

chatrī lē lō, sāyad bāris hōnce lagē
Take an umbrella; it might begin to rain.
Oblique infinitive + lagnā describes only the commencement of an action or event, and is neutral with regard to whether an action is intentional.

As a stative verb, lagnā occurs in the immediate past to express states which
began in the past and continue in the present. For both reasons, this construction often occurs in perfective tenses.

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { chatrí lè lō, bāris hōnc̄ lagì hai } \\
& \text { Take an umbrella; it has begun to rain. }
\end{aligned}
$$

When expressing an intention to begin something in the future, the denomnative verb $\bar{s} u n \bar{u}$ karnā, 'to begin' (with the nominative infinitive) is preferable.

aglē mahīnē sē maim apnī tanxāh sê kuch bacānā surū karũm̉ gā
As of next month I shall begin to save something from my salary.

## 648 Oblique infinitive + dēnā ('let')

The construction: obliQue infinitive + dēnā shows (a) permission to do an action, or the (b) anticipation of an event. dēnā, which is transitive, determines the grammar of the sentence, and $\overline{\mathrm{n}}$ is used in perfective tenses even if the infinitive belongs to an intransitive verb.

abbā nē mujhē kitāb xarīdnē na dī
Daddy didn't let me buy the book.
سَّهرون ن مـجه سون نهيي ديا -
maccharṑn nē mujhē sōnē̃ nahỉm diyā
The mosquitoes didn't let me sleep.
مين ڤرض كا پيسm ابهـي چکا دول ؟ - ربنغ دو بهائى !
maimin qarz kā paisa abhī cukā dūm̉??-rahnē đō, bhāị! Shall I repay the loan now?-Never mind (let it remain), brother!


Let the holidays come; I'll take you to my village.

649 Oblique infinitive + verb of motion (purpose)
Oblique infinitives may be used with verbs of motion to express purpose. They may be understood as instances of deletion of k $\overline{0}$, or the compound postposition kē liè

aśraf sāhib āp sê milnē āē haim
Mr. Ashraf has come to meet you.
كيول ن~ آج به سنيما ديكهن جائيى ؟
kyōǹ na āj ham sinēmā dêkhnē jāēm̀?
Why don't we go to see a film today?
Compare
كيول نم آج نمr سنيما ديكهنغ
kyōm na na āj ham sinēmā dēkhnē kē liè (kō) jāēm̀ ?
Why don't we go to see a film today?

## 650 <br> Oblique infinitive $+\mathbf{k a}$ (negative assertion)

The oblique infinitive is used with nahīm and $\mathbf{k} \bar{a}(\sim \mathbf{k} \overline{\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}} \sim \mathbf{k} \overline{\mathbf{i}}$ ) to make a strong negative assertion. kā replaces the sentence verb, and agrees with the subject.

> بي جهول نهي بولن كا با با
> maim jhự nahīm bōlnē kà!
> I am not going to tell a lie!

maheringā xatam nahïm hōnẽ ki
The rise in prices is never going to stop.

## 7 COMPOUND VERBS

Verb sequences consisting of verb root + inflected verb have been given various designations, including 'compound verbs', 'intensive verbs', 'compound verbal formations' and 'verb sequences'. In this work they are called 'compound verbs'. ${ }^{1}$ Non-compound verbs are referred to as 'simple verbs'.

## COMPOUND VERBS AND SIMPLE VERBS

## 701 The structure of compound verb phrases

The form of the first verb in a compound verb sequence is in most cases the verb root ( $\$ 601$ ). It is called the main verb. The main verb shows the lexical (original or 'dictionary') meaning of the sequence.

The second verb has been given various names, including 'vector verb', 'intensifying verb', 'compound auxiliary', and 'explicator verb'. In this work it is called the 'vector verb'. The vector verb loses its lexical meaning to a greater or lesser extent, but adds a nuance to the meaning of the sequence. It functions as the sentence verb, that is, it is inflected to show tense and agreement.

| Simple verb | سونا | sōnā, to sleep |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Compound verb | سو جانا | sō jänă, to fall asleep |
| Simple verb | برِّهنها | paṛhnă, to read |
| Compound verb | لبِّه دينا | paṛh dēnā, to read to someo |

While one may generalize about the type of nuance contributed by individual vector verbs, the contribution of a vector verb is also affected by the meaning of the main verb. Sometimes the meaning of the compound verb sequence cannot be deduced from the meaning of the main verb and the force of the vector verb, but must be looked up in a dictionary or discovered from usage.

In some cases a compound has become more or less relexicalized, that is, the compound has a new unitary definition which is distinct from the meaning of the simple verb, and cannot be predicted from its components.

[^20]
## Relexicalized compounds

| Simple verb | هارنا | mârnā, to beat |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Compound verb | كا | mār dālnā, to kill |
| Simple verb | لينا | lēnā, to take |
| Compouno verb | ل」 | lē jānă, to take away |

The class of Urdu vector verbs is small. The nine vector verbs discussed in this chapter cover most compound sequences occurring in texts. For further information, the student may consult the references given in the bibliography.

## 702 The difference between compound and simple verbs

A simple verb shows only that an action or event takes place. Compound verbs are nuanced. They show the unfolding of an action, or provide contextual information. The difference is comparable to the difference between an outline drawing, and a drawing in which the figures are shaded.

## Simple verb (hōnā)

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { جب موسم ثهن } \\
& \text { jab mausam ṭhanḍā hūā, tō parindē ur gaē } \\
& \text { When the weather became cold, the birds flew away. }
\end{aligned}
$$

## Compound verb (hö jänä)

جنورى بيس توسم نهنما بو گيا -
janvarī mēm mausam thanḍā hō gayā
In January the weather became cold.
In the above set, the simple verb hūa shows only that the weather changed. The compound verb hō gayā allows visualization of the the cooling process.

## Simple verb (parhnā)


kyā āp nē xat paṛā̃?-jī hāḿ, maim nē parhā
Did you read the letter?-Yes, I read it.

## Compound verbs (paṛh lēnā, paṛh dēnā)


maim nē xat paṛh liyā
I finished reading the letter (to myself).
بين نـ وه خط امنال كو پرَه ديا -
maim nē vo xat ammām̉ kō paṛh diyā
I read that letter (completely) to mother.
In the first example in the above set, parthā shows only that the letter has been read. The compound examples show that the process of reading the letter has been completed; in addition, paṛh liyā shows that the speaker read it for himself, whereas parh diyā shows that he has communicated it to another person (by reading it aloud).

The following quotations from Prem Chand's Gōdānillustrates how compound verbs add nuances to events, whereas simple verbs merely show the occurrence of the event.

گوبر نخ ناؤ צبا دى -
gōbar nē nāō đ̣ubă dī
Gobar sank the boat.

gōbar nē nahīm dubā̃. dubāi usí né
Gobar didn't sink it; she is the one who sank it.


Whoever sank it, now it has really gone down.
The simple verb dū̄bā, 'sank' is used when the question concerns only who has caused the sinking (a metaphor for a misfortune). But when the context of the sinking comes into focus, compound verbs are used. ḍubă dī (compound with the vector dēnă) implies a completed action which begins with Gobar and affects the external environment. dū̆h ... gaī (compound with the vector jānā) unfolds the event of sinking, from the initial stage where it could possibly have been prevented, to the final stage where it sank beneath the water.

## INTRANSITIVE VECTOR VERBS

Intransitive main verbs usually occur with vector verbs which are also intransitive. The most frequent intransitive vector verb is jānā. parnă, nikalnā, baithnā and uthnã are also common. When both verbs are intransitive, the compound sequence is intransitive, and the vector verb agrees with the subject in gender and number.

## 703 The vector verb jānā

جان $\mathrm{j} \overline{\mathrm{a}} \overline{\mathrm{n}} \mathrm{a}^{( }$(which as a sentence verb means 'to go') shows the unfolding of a transitition from one state to a second state. It occurs with verbs of motion and stative verbs; verbs which cannot show completable actions do not occur with jānā
jānā cannot be used as a vector verb with the main verb jān̄̄:
WRONG جا جانا jā jānā

Please take your seat! (Why are you still standing?)
Compare

## baithie

Please sit (down). (a routine request)
بات ايكى دن كُهلنى تهى ، آخركُهل بی كُيى -

## băt èk din khulnī thï, äxir khul hi gai

The matter had to come out (be opened) some day; finally it did come out.

> ـيس نر بستر بجها ديا اور ليدط گيا ـ
> maim nē bistar bichā diyā aur lēt gayā

I spread out the bedding and lay down. (transition)
ساسان بوائى ا\$ڭ
sāmān havāi aḍ̣̣e par rah gayã
The luggage was left behind in the airport.

## 704 The vector verb pamā

برَنا which happens involuntarily, suddenly, unexpectedly, or something one is unable to prevent. parnā occurs only with main verbs which can show sudden actions or
events, and does not occur with stative verbs.

kuttē kē bbaumiktē hī baccī rō parī̀
As soon as the dog barked the little girl burst into tears.
لرّا
larkā caltī rèl gạ̄̂ī sē gir parā
The boy fell off the moving train.

jab abbā jăn faut būē, ghar kī zimmē dārī mērēe sir par ā parī
When Daddy died, responsibility for the household fell (inevitably) on me.

## 705 The vector verb nikalnā

Kكلن: nikalnā (which as a sentence verb means 'to come out', 'to emerge'), shows suddenness or unexpectedness, but also motion out or away.

khulē būē pbâtak mḕm sē kuttā bhäg niklā
The dog scooted away through the open gate.
چوبيا پلنگگ
cühiyā palang kē nïcê sê ā nikli
The mouse suddenly popped out from under the bed.
Note: Some have analysed $\overline{\mathbf{a}}$ in the preceding verb sequence as a short absolutive (conjunctive participle with deleted kar); however if kar is added to the sequence, the meaning changes: the element of suddenness is lost.

> cūhiyā palang kē nicee sē à kar niklī
> Coming out from under the bed, the mouse emerged.

## 706 The vector verb uthnā

位 uthnā (which as a sentence verb means 'to rise', 'to get up') connotes an action which happens suddenly, and it intensifies the main verb. It often occurs with verbs like 'speak', 'cry', 'scream', etc. It occurs only with main verbs which can be intensified, and does not occur with stative verbs. If it is used with a transitive main verb, the main verb cannot take an object, and the sequence is treated as intransitive.

درد إتنا تها كم بخّى رو اُنهـى -
dard itnā thā ke baccī rō uṭhï
The pain was so severe that the little girl burst into a wail.
 Look, don't make noises, otherwise the whole village will wake up ...
قاضي ير سن كـر چیيخ اُنها -
qāzī ye sun kar cīx uthā
When the judge heard it, he let out a yell. (Narang, Readings)

## 707 The vector verb baithnā

بيُّهنا baithnā (which as a sentence verb means 'to sit') shows an impulsive or involuntary action, and may imply that the speaker disapproves of the action. It may describe an irremediable mistake. The vector baithnā is an exception to the rule that intransitive main verbs usually occur with intransitive vector verbs. baithnā occurs most frequently with transitive main verbs.

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { - } \\
& \text { mulāzim mālik sē lar baithā, aur naukari gaï } \\
& \text { The employee quarrelled with the boss, and lost his job (lit. The job went). }
\end{aligned}
$$

## TRANSITIVE VECTOR VERBS

Normally, transitive verb roots are used with vector verbs which are also transitive. The most common transitive vector verbs are: dēnă, and lēnā. dālnā and rakhnā also occur. When both verbs are transitive, the compound sequence is transitive; in perfective tenses, the subject takes $\mathbf{n \mathcal { E }}$ ( $\$ 510$ ), and the vector verb agrees with a nominative direct object in gender and number.

## 708 The vector verb dēnā

دينا dēnā (which as a sentence verb means 'to give') shows the completion of an action, an action which is done for someone else, directed away from the self, or which affects the external environment. In request forms, use of the compound with dēnã makes a request slightly more polite.

ēk Sís mahal banā dō gē... mujhē bahut sä sōnā cäñdī dē dō gē?
Will you build a crystal palace ... will you give me a lot of gold and silver? (Narang, Readings)
ير پرانر كاغذ پهينک دو ـو
ye puränē kāरaz phḕnk dō
Throw these old papers a way. (direction away from the self)

maim nē lifāfa tumhārē baṭvē mēn் rakh diyă hai
I have put the envelope in your bag. (I have done it for you.)
dēnā is used idiomatically with causatives:

- موقع پاكر أُس نغ بهى سنا دیى -
mauqā pā kar us nē bhī sunā dī
He also took the opportunity to give (him) a piece of his mind.
انُكى باتول كو بُهال دينا إتنا آسان نهيى -
un kī bātōm kō bhulā dēnā itnă āsän nahìm
It is not so easy to put out of mind what he said.
709 The vector verb lēnä
لènă (which as a sentence vcrb means 'to take') shows the completion of an action, an action done for the self, on the self, dirccted towards the self, or coming from the external environment and affecting the self.
بيي ن لفاف اينخ بثو > بيى زكه ليا -
maim nē lifăfa apnē baṭvē mēń rakh liyā
I put the envelope in my bag. (I did it for myself.)
آپ كتاب ركه ليجئخ

You please keep the book.
Compare

##  <br> vo vāpas ā kar apnī kitāb lē lëm gē

After he returns he will take back his book.

## 710 The vector verb dā̄nā

كُ dālnā (which as a sentence verb means 'to put', 'to pour') shows intensity, urgency, completeness, or even violence.

بجّون ن برف كا آدبى بنا מُالا ـ
baccōm̀ nē baraf kā ādmī banā đ̄ā̀ā
The children made a snowman (when they got the chance)

is mauzū par maim nē särī kitābēm pařh đ̄ā̄̄̄ haim
On this subject, I have read all the books I could find.


(If) the police had not come, the bandits would have killed him.

## 711 The vector verb rakhnat

ركهنا rakhnä (which as a sentence verb means 'to put', 'to place') occurs with the main verbs dēnā and lēnä, meaning 'to give/take (as a loan)', and with other semantically appropriate main verbs showing an action performed beforehand.

us nē apnā makān hamčm dē rakhā hai
He has given us his house (allowed us to use it).

maim nc̄ nasimm kō jō raqm dē rakhī hai, vo jald lautā dē gā Nasim will soon return the amount which I have loaned (him).

nasìm nè mujh sē dō hazār rupaē lē rakhē haiṃ
Nasim has borrowed two thousand rupees from me.
فاطهم نـ كيا الچّهى سازرى پهن ركهى تهى -
fâtima nē kyā acchī särị pahn rakhî thï
What a fine sari Fatima was wearing.
 muzähirīn kō rōknē kē liē pōlīs nē imärat kē gird ghērā d̄ā rakhā thā
In order to stop the demonstrators, the police set $u p$ a barricade around the building.

## MIXED TRANSITIVITY IN COMPOUND VERBS

Although intransitive main verbs usually occur with intransitive vectors, and transitive main verbs usually occur with transitive vectors, there are exceptions to this rule. The resulting sequences are always treated as intransitive (the vector verb agrees with the subject even if it is transitive as a sentence verb).

712 Transitive main verbs with intransitive vectors
The combination of transitive main verbs with intransitive vectors occurs most often with the vectors jānä and baiṭhnā, but there are other combinations, which can be found in a comprehensive dictionary.

| لـ | lē jānā, to take away |
| :---: | :---: |
| 考 | lē calnă, to take someone somewhere |
| كها | khā jān̄a, to eat up |
| كر جانّا | kar jānā, to accomplish |
| كر بيّهنها | kar baithnn, to do as a blunder |
|  | kar guzamă, to do (in spite of obstacles) |
| سبكّه جانا | silkh jănă, to learn (quickly) |


yāsmīn kō bhī sāth lē calō tō acchā hō
It would be better if you also take Yasmin along.

is mēm tū jản dālē gā tō ye sab kō khä jāē gā
If you put life into it, it will eat up everyone. (Narang, Readings)
كيا (وه) كسى سِ مار رييط كر بيُها ؟
kyā (vo) kisï sē mār pīt kar baithā?
Did he go and get into a fight with someone? (Prem Chand, Gödān)

وه نشـ كرنٍ ك
vo nasa karnē $k e ̄$ liè kuch bhī kar guzartā hai
In order to get high, he (an addict) will do anything at all.
طالب علم اُردو ايكى بی سال بيى سيكه گئـ -
tālib ilm urdū èk hī sāl mēm̀ sīkh gaē
The students learned Urdu in only a year.

713 Intransitive main verbs with transitive vectors
The combination of intransitive main verbs with transitive vectors occurs mainly with the vector dēnā. The three intransitive main verbs which compound with dēnā are calnā, hamisnā and rōnā:

| جل دينا | cal dēnā, to set off, depart, leave |
| :--- | :--- |
| بو دينىا دينا | ham̀s dēnā, to burst into laughter |
| rōnā, to burst into tears |  |

Note: even though dēnā, the vector verb, is transitive, the subject does not take nē in past tenses.

ريل گازی چل دی -
rēl gărí cal di
The train departed.
لطيفم سن كر بين بنس ديا ـ
latufa sun kar main hamis diyā
On hearing the joke, I laughed.

## RESTRICTIONS ON OCCURRENCE OF COMPOUND VERBS

714 Constructions based on the verb root or infinitive
Compound verbs are not used with the following:
Continuous tenses (VERB ROOT + rahā hai, rahā thā, etc., §614)
VERB ROOT + saknā (§618)
VERB ROOT + cuknā ( $\$ 620$ )
OBLIQUE NFINTIVE + lagnă ( $\$ 647$ )
Exception: compounds which have been relexicalized sometimes occur with saknā, if the simple form does not express the equivalent meaning. But the usage is uncommon.

نوكر دصروف تها ، سامان نهيي لـخ جا سكا ـ
naukar masrūf thā, sāmān nahīm $l$ lē $j a ̄ ~ s a k a ̄ ~$
The servant was busy (and) couldn't take away the things.

## 715 Participial constructions

Compounds rarely occur in participial constructions, including the conjunctive participle (§612).

Exception: compounds which have been relexicalized sometimes occur in participial constructions, as the simple form would mean something else. But the usage is not common.

نوكر ن ساسان لـ جاتخ بوئر كها
naukar nē sảmản lê jãtê hūẽ kahă ...
Taking away the things, the servant said ...
نوكر نخ كيلُ>> لـ جاكر دهو دير
naukar nē kaprè $\mathfrak{e}$ jā kar dhō diyē
The servant took away the clothes and washed them.

## 716 Passive constructions

Compounds of transitive main verbs and the vector verb dēnā are occasionally passivized (§634), but it is uncommon for compounds to occur in the passive.

- لفاف, آب ك
lifăfa āp kē bațvē mēṁ rakh diyă gaya hai
The envelope has been put in your bag.


## 717 Negative sentences

Compound verbs are rarely used in negative sentences.

kyäă nē ye kām kar liyă hai?
Have you done this work?

jī hām, mairn nē kar liyā hai
Yes, I have done (it).

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { - jī nahïm, maim nē nahīm̀ kiyā } \\
& \text { No, I haven't done (it). }
\end{aligned}
$$

## Exceptions

(a) Compounds which have been relexicalized occasionally occur with negatives, as the simple form would mean something else. However it is not common.

kyā naukar sāmān lē gayā?--nahïm lē gayā, masrüf thä
Did the servant take away the things?-He didn't take them away; he was busy.
(b) When kahīm is used with the negative to express apprehension ( $\S 425$ ), compounds do occur. The compound is usually split apart, with the negative coming between the main verb and the vector verb.

إتنا بهارى صندوق اوير ن~ ركهو ، كهيه گر نـ جائر !
itnāà bbāñi sandūq ūpar na rakhō, kahïm̉ gir na jāe?
Don't put such a heavy box up (on a rack) lest it fall!

kahīnn dākū hamēmè mār na đ̛̣âc̄ḿn
I only hope the bandits don't kill us.
Compounds also occur in clauses beginning with jab tak + negative (§1114) However, such sentences are not really negative; in the following sentence, the entire phrase jab tak + negative means 'until', 'unless'. The negative comes between the main verb and the vector verb.

jab tak āp qarz cukā na đēḿ, vo yahịm dharnā dē gà
Untilyou return the loan, he will sit right here in protest.
Use of a compound in a negative sentence may show contraotction. Again, the compound is split apart, and the negative particle (sometimes accompanied by tō) comes between the main verb and the vector verb.

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { maim àp kī ainak tợr tō nahìm dūm gā } \\
& \text { I'm not going to break your glasses (you seem to think I will). }
\end{aligned}
$$

## PERFECTIVE PARTICIPLES AS MAIN VERBS

Occasionally the perfective participle (§604) occurs as the main verb in a compound verb sequence instead of the root.

## 718 Nominative perfective participles as main verbs

Two very common examples of compounds with perfective participles as main verbs are calā jānā, 'to leave' and calā ānã, 'to come', which have been relexicalized. Both the participle and the vector verb agree with the subject.

الكرم سارا كام كركح چلا گیا -
akram särā kām kar kē calā gayā
Akram left after doing all the work.
يم آپ
ye āp kā ghar hai, jab jī cāhē yahāán calē ä̀ $y \bar{c}$
This is your house; come here whenever you like.
The nominative perfect participle occurs with other verbs of motion:
قلى بهاگا گيا اور سامان لـ آيا ـ
quī bhägā gayã aur sămăn lē āyā
The porter ran and brought the luggage.

## 719 Oblique perfectlve participles as main verbs

When the perfective participle occurs' in the masculine oblique singular case, the participle shows (a) continuation or progression, often with the vector verb jänā; (b) intensification of the verb, and/or (c) imminence.

## Continuation/progression

احمد ن بیى نم كو روكع ركها ـ
ahmad nē hì bam kō rōkē rakhā
It is Ahmad who delayed us.
-rōkē rakhā shows continuation of the action. rōk rakhā does not occur.
وه بـ بسى سر صادق كى طرف ديكه جا ربا تها -
vo bē basī sē sädiq kī taraf dēkhē jā rahā thā
He went on looking helplessly at Sadiq.

nambar ghümāē jäyē, kabhī tō milē gă
Do go on dialling the number; you will get it sometime.

Intensification
بي تم می كمهر ديتا بول ...
maim tum sê kahē dētā hümं ...
I warn you ...
-kahē dēnă means 'to warn', whereas kah dēnā would mean 'to tell'.

## Imminence


maim àp kō is almārī mēm chupāē dēt̄̄ hūm
I will hide you in this wardrobe right away. (Narang, Readings)

## DENOMINATIVE VERBS IN COMPOUND VERB SEQUENCES (720)

Dcnominative verbs (verb sequences consisting of a noun or adjective plus an inflected verb, §607), may occur in compound verb sequences, especially with the most common vectors dēnā, lēnă and jānă. It is impossible to formulate rules to predict the occurrence of individual denominative verbs with individual vectors, as the semantics of each individual denominative verb must be considered. Actual usage should be leamed as it is encountered.


Khurshid divided the money among all three men.
خورشيد ن پيبسون كا حساب كر ليا -
xūrsĩd nē paisōm kā hisāb kar liyã
Khurshid made an account of the money (and kept it).
لوگ شوك بيي جمع بو گئ -
lōg cauk mēmं jama hō gaē
People gathered in the square.

## 8 INTRANSITIVE, TRANSITIVE AND CAUSATIVE VERBS

## INTRANSITIVE AND TRANSITIVE VERBS

801 The difference between transitive and intransitive verbs
Transitive verbs are verbs which may take objects. The object may be deleted, but can still be inferred, or 'understood'. Intransitive verbs do not take objects. The focus in the sentence also differs. In transitive sentences, the focus is on what the doer does. In intransitive sentences, the focus is on the result of what is done.

English translations of Urdu sentences are not reliable as a guide to whether an Urdu verb is transitive or not, because English verbs may often be used both transitively and intransitively, depending on the context (This shop sells apples versus Apples are selling well now). Compare the following Urdu sentences:

سليمبا بازو
salīm kā bāzū tụ̄! gayă (< țụtnā, to be broken)
Salim broke his arm (lit. Salim's arm broke).

zăhid nē salìm kō mārā aur us kā bāzū tọr diyā (< tọrnā, to break (something))
Zahid hit Salim and broke his arm.
English passives are sometimes needed to translate Urdu intransitives:

camca gir gayā (< girnā, to fall)
The spoon fell; the spoon was dropped.

täj mabal barị mehnat sē banā (< bannā, to be built)
The Taj Mahal was built with great effort.
Unintentional actions are expressed in Urdu with intransitives. The instrument of the action occurs in a postpositional phrase with sē (§512):


```
baccè sē camca gir gayä (< girnā, to fall)
The baby dropped the spoon (accidentally)
```

A transitive verb (with a subject taking nē) would express intentional action:
baccē $\overline{n e ̄}$ camca girā diyā (< girānā, to drop, let fall)
The baby dropped the spoon (deliberately).

## 802 Agreement of verbs

Intransitive verbs agree with the subject of the sentence, whatever the tense of the verb. Transitive verbs agree with the subject only in non-perfective tenses. In perfective tenses, the subject of transitive verbs is followed by the postposition nee ( $\$ 510$ ). The verb agrees with a nominative direct object (see §629 for a detailed discussion). All causative verbs are considered transitive with respect to subject-verb agreement, and take the subject with nē in perfective tenses.

## 803 The increment $-\bar{a}$

Transitive and intransitive verbs often occur in pairs which are closely related in both meaning and form. Many transitives are formed from intransitives by adding the increment- $\bar{a} \mid$ to the intransitive root ( $\$ 601$ ) to make a transitive stem. Roots ending in long vowels take the alternate form of the increment, llà $ע$. Derivation with the increment $-\overline{\mathrm{a}}$ can be summarized as follows:
(a) The increment may be added to an intransitive root to derive a transitive stem (§804)
(b) The increment may be added to a transitive root to derive a double transitive stem ( $\$ 805$ ).
(c) The increment may be added to an intransitive or a transitive root to derive a direct causative stem ( $\$ 810$ ).

Transitive and causative stems take infinitival, participial and verbal suffixes just like simple verb roots. They are also found under their own spellings in dictionaries, and not under the intransitive form. (Some dictionaries, however, show indirect causative verbs ( $\$ 811$ ) under the forms from which they are derived.) For most practical purposes, the transitive or causative stem of a derived verb may be treated and referred to as a verb root.

1 An allernate form of the incremenı, , - $\overline{0}$ - occurs in one case: bhïgnä, 'lo gel wet' $\rightarrow$ bhigōnāā بهيگّا , 'lo soak'.

There are alSo BASIC TRANSITIVE VERBS, which are not derived from intransitives. Some transitive verbs have no related intransitive form, for example, karnā 'to do', sunnā سنیا , سُشهنا , 'to hear', parhnā read'. In certain other cases, the intransitive form is obviously derived from the transitive, and not vice versa, for example, sil سل , 'to be stitched' > sināà , 'to stitch'; dhul ذلهنا > dhōnā د هونا, 'to wash'.

Illustrative sets of transitive and intransitive verbs are shown below. Please note that there are numerous irregularities in the derivation process, and it is not possible to formulate rules which predict every case. Each pair must be learned individually.

## 804 Transitives derived with the increment $-\bar{a}$

The increment -à may be added to an intransitive root to derive a transitive stem.

## Case

The vowel in the intransitive root is short, and the root ends in a consonant. The increment $-\bar{a}$ is simply suffixed to the root of the intransitive verb to form the transitive stem.

بنـنا
bannā, to form, be made $\rightarrow$ banānā, to make
نگّ
lagnā, to stick, be applied $\rightarrow$ lagānā, to apply
$\chi_{\vec{v}} \leftarrow \dot{U}_{*}$
calnā, to walk, go $\rightarrow$ calānā to run (something), drive
بِچچֶا
bacnā, to escape $\rightarrow$ bacānā, to save
أُمْهنا
uthnā, to rise, get up $\rightarrow$ uṭānā to lift, wake someone
ن
milnä, to meet, be available $\rightarrow$ milānā, to connect, mix ${ }^{2}$
2 milănā could also be construed as a double transitive verb in the senlence, us nē mujh sē hāth milàȳ̄ 'He shook hands with me.'

is mahallē mēm èk masjid ban rahī hai
A mosque is being built in this ward.

mazdūrōm nē din răt kām kar kē masjid banā
The labourers worked day and night to build (and built) the mosque.
آٓ بيى بهت سويرــ أُّها -
āj maim bahut savērē uthā
I got up very early this morning.

caukidār sōyā thā, maimin nē usē uthā diyā
The watchman was asleep; I got him up.

ittifâq sē ārif sähib mil gaē
By chance Mr. Arif met us (was available).

ārif sāhib sē milā dijiē
Please connect (me) with Mr. Arif (on the telephone).
اُس نـ دودهـ اور شينى بلُنى
us nẽ düdh aur cinī milăı
He mixed milk and sugar.

## Case II

The intransitive root vowel is long, and the root ends in a consonant. The root vowel is shortened, and the increment $-\overline{\mathrm{a}}$ is suffixed to form the transitive stem.

سوكهنا
sükhnä, to dry, dry up $\rightarrow$ sukhānā, to dry (something)
بارش كح بعد زنين سوكه گُّى
bărisis kē bād zamīn sükh gaī
After the rain, the soil dried out

گرميول بيي دهوپ زمين كو سكها ديتى يـ -
garmiyōò mēm dhūp zamīn kō sukhā dē̄̄̄ hai
In the hot season, the sunlight dries out the soil.
The verb bōlnā, 'to speak', which may take an object, is treated as an intransitive and forms a transitive by shortening the root vowel and adding $-\overline{\mathrm{a}}$.

بونن
bōlnā, to speak $\rightarrow$ bulână, to call

نجمر نارسیى بول سكتي
Najma färsī bōl saktì hai
Najma can speak Farsi.

نجم آتِ كو بلا
Najma āp kō bulā rahī hai
Najma is calling you.

Case III
The vowel (or final vowel) in the intransitive root is short, and the root ends in a consonant. The increment $-\bar{a}$ is infixed or inserted into the verb root of the intransitive verb to form the transitive stem. This lengthens the root vowel and may also change the vowel quality. The final consonant of the root may be softened.
(a) When long -ā is added to short -a-, long -ā- results.

كائنا
kaṭnä, to be cut $\rightarrow$ kätnā, to cut, disconnect
رن
marnă, to die $\rightarrow$ märnā, to beat, hit
نكلنا
nikalnā, to come out, emerge $\rightarrow$ nikālnā, to take out
أُترنا
utamā, to descend, get out $\rightarrow$ utänā, to bring down, take out

| - بجلى كن كیى bijli kat gai | هسترى تاركال ربا بيه mistrī tār kät rahā hai |
| :---: | :---: |
| The electricity was disconnected. | The electrician is cutting the wire |


pahlë bas sē baccōm kō utärnä, phir xud utarnă
First get the children out of the bus, then get out yourself.
(b) When long $-\bar{a}$ is added to short $-\mathbf{u}-$, a long $-\overline{\mathbf{o}}$ - results. This rule also affects a few verbs with long -ū-.

برُنا
murnā, to turn $\rightarrow$ mōrnā, to turn (something)
كُهلنا $\leftarrow$ كهولنا
khulnā, to open $\rightarrow$ khölnā, to open (something)
ركنا
ruknä, to stop $\rightarrow$ rōknä, to stop (something)
نوْنّا
tựṇā, to be broken $\rightarrow$ tōrnā, to break (something)

chüṭāa, to be released, depart $\rightarrow$ chörnī, to leave, abandon
 gặi mur rahì hai
The car is turning.
دكان دس بـج كهلتّى dukän das bajē khult̄̀ hai
The shop opens at 10 .

كازىى بائي كو بوزُ ديجئع gārịi bāećn kō mōr dijié Please tum the car left.

دكاندار دس بّح دكان كهولتا بـ dukāndār das bajē dukān khöltā hai The shopkeeper opens the shop at 10 .
(c) When long $-\bar{a}$ is added to short -i -, long $\cdot \overline{\mathrm{c}}$ - results.

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { بكنا } \\
& \text { biknă, to be sold } \rightarrow \text { bēcnā, to sell }
\end{aligned}
$$

چچهدنا
chidnā, to be pierced $\rightarrow$ chēdnā, to pierce

3 Both the initial $t$ - of tụthā and the initial $t$ of tọmă come from an ancient $t$-, which has developed in different ways.

mëlē mēm̀ gharbunā kaprā bik rahā hai
At the fair, handloom cloth is being sold.

mēlē mēm jaulāhē gharbunā kaprạa bëc rahē haim
At the fair, the weavers are selling handloom cloth

## 805 Double transitives derived with the increment - $\overline{\mathbf{a}}$

The increment $-\overline{\mathbf{a}}(\sim-\overline{\mathbf{a}})$ may be added to some transirive roots to derive a double transirive stem. Double transitive verbs take two objects, a direct object and an indirect object. The transitive roots which make double transitives are semantically reflexive, and occur with the vector verb lēnā (\$709) when compound.

## Case

The last vowel in the transitive root is short, and the root ends in a consonant. The increment -ā is simply suffixed to the root of the transitive verb to form the double transitive stem. If the transitive root has two short syllables, the vowel in the second syllable is elided

هِرْهنا
parhnā, to read, study $\rightarrow$ pạ̣hānā, to teach, educate
سننا $\leftarrow$
sumnă, to hear, listen to $\rightarrow$ sunān̄̄a, to tell
يكَّنا
pakarnā, to catch $\rightarrow$ pakrānā, to give to hold
سmجin
samajhnă, to understand $\rightarrow$ samjhānă, to explain
أُستاد صاحب نخ بهيى اُردو يٌره هائى -
ustãd sähib nē hamẽm̉ urdū parhā̄
The teacher taught us Urdu (double transitive).
Compare

## mainn nê urdū parhī hai

I have studied Urdu (transitive).

nāhīd nē mujhē xabar sunāI
Nahid told me the news (double transitive).

## Compare


maim nē xabarēm sunīm
I listened to the news (transitive).

## Case II

The transitive root vowel is long, and the root ends in a consonant. The root vowel is shortened, and the increment $-\overline{\mathrm{a}}$ is suffixed to form the double transitive stem.

ديكهنا
dēkhnā, to see, look at $\rightarrow$ dikhān̄ā, to show
سيكهنا
sikhnā, to learn $\rightarrow$ sikhānā, to teach

نسيهى ن مجهر تصوير دكههائى -
nasìm nē mujhē tasvīr dikhāi
Nasim showed me the picture (double transitive).
Compare

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { "بي ن تصوير ديكهى - } \\
& \text { maim nee tasvir dēkhí } \\
& \text { I looked at the picture (transitive). }
\end{aligned}
$$


ammäḿn baccē kō calnā sikhā rahī hai
The mother is teaching the baby to walk.
Compare
 bacca calnā sīkh rahă hai
The baby is learning to walk.

## Case III

This group is the remnant of a formerly larger group of verb roots ending in aspirated voiceless consonants, which took the increment in -lā. kahnă, 'to say' is now virtually the only member of the group. It forms a double transitive with -lā, and is translated by an English passive.

Lill $5 \leftarrow$
kahnā, to say $\rightarrow$ kahlānā, to be called
يم پهازُ بماليم كهلاتر بين -
ye pahạr himälaya kahlātē haim
These mountains are called the Himalayas.

806 Transitivity with compound verbs
When compound verbs are used, transitive verbs usually take transitive vector verbs, and intransitive verbs usually take intransitive vector verbs (Chapter 7).

## 807 Transitivity with denominative verbs

Denominative verb phrases, consisting of a noun or adjective plus a verb (§607) often have parallel transitive and intransitive forms made with karnā and hōnā, respectively.

خاخل كرنا - داخل بونا
dāxil karnā, to enrol - dāxil hōnā, to enter, be enrolled

maim nẽ apnē bêtệ kō is skūl mēm dãxil kiyā hai
I have entered my son in this school.

mērā bêtā is sāl skūl mēm dāxil huă hai
My son has entered school this year.
جمع كرنا - جم بونا
jamā Kamā, to collect - jamā hōnā, to gather, accumulate

us nē jalsē mēm̀ bahut lög jamā kar liyē
He collected many people in the public meeting.
لوگ خوك بيس جمع بو گئر -
lōg cauk mēmं jamā $h o ̈$ gaē
People gathered in the square.

808 Verbs which function both intransitively and transitively
Some verbs function both transitively and intransitively.
بدننا badalnā
بهرنا bharnã
badalnā, 'to change' and bharnā, 'to fill' are intransitive when there is no object, and transitive when there is. When they function as transitives, they take subjects with the postposition nē in perfective tenses. The addition of an intransitive or transitive vector verb often makes their status explicit.

munīr nē bahut dinōmín sè kaprẹe nahīm badlē
Munir hasn't changed his clothes for days (transitive).

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { - سوسم بدل گيا بر - } \\
& \text { mausam badal gayà hai }
\end{aligned}
$$

The weather has changed (intransitive, intransitive vector verb).

maim nē bistar kī cādar badal dì
I changed the cover on the bed (transitive, transitive vector verb).

maim nê bälṭ̛ mèm pănī hhar liyã
I filled the bucket with water (transitive, transitive vector verb)

bālṭ̂ pānī sê bhar gaï
The bucket filled up with water (intransitive, intransitive vector verb).

809 Exceptions: transitives without nē, intransitives with nē

## Transitives which do not take nē

There are a few verbs which may take objects, but which do not take subjects with nē in perfective tenses.

| نا | lē ānā, to bring | بهولن | bbülnā, to forget |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| لانا | lānā, to bring | رلنـ | milnā, to meet |
| لـ | lē jānā, to take away | بونW | bōlnā, to speak, say |

The compound verbs lē ānā and lē jānā have the intransitive verb ānā, 'to come' as their vector verb, therefore they do not take $\mathbf{n \overline { e }}$.
نوكر چائر دانى لی گیا -
naukar cāēdān̄̄ lé gayà
The servant took away the teapot.
وه هالاقات كا وقت بهول گياً -
vo mulāqāt kā vaqt bhül gayā
He forgot the time of the appointment.

- بيس ستِ بولا
maim sac bōlā
I spoke the truth.

سـمجهنا samajhnä
samajhnā, 'to understand' is transitive, but may occur either with or without ne in perfective tenses:



```
He didn't understand what I mean.
```

The addition of a transitive or intransitive vector verb to samajhnā forces the choice, and contributes different nuances of meaning:

maim àp ki băt samm
I follow your point.
بين ن بات سمجه لى -
maimin nē băt samajh $\sqrt{\text { İ }}$
I have understood the matter (and will probably deal with it).
The idioms dikhāi dēnā, 'to be seen', 'to be visible' and sunāi dēnā, 'to be heard', 'to be audible' do not take $\mathbf{n e}$ (dikhāi and sunāı are nominal forms meaning 'coming into view' and 'hearing', respectively. They are translated with English passives.)

## ـشـين كا شور دور تكى سنائى ديا ـ

masinn kā sör dūr tak sunāa diyā
The noise of the machine could be heard a long way

## Intransitives which take $\bar{n} \bar{e}$

A few intransitive verbs may take $\overline{\mathrm{a}} \overline{\mathrm{e}}^{4}$

| تهوكنا | thüknā, to spit |
| :---: | :---: |
| جهانكنا | jhāàkknā, to peep |
| هوتنا | mütnā, to urinate |
| كهبكهولانا | khatkhatânā, to knock |

In some cases the presence of a direct object or quasi-direct object in the deep structure may explain the phenomenon.

$$
\begin{array}{cl}
\text { ( (darvāz̄ā) khatkhatạnā, to knock (on) a door } \\
\text { (andar) jhāmknā, to peep inside }
\end{array}
$$

## CAUSATIVE VERBS

Causatives describe the causation of a state or action, sometimes by means of an instrument or intermediary agent (a noun or pronoun followed by sē ${ }^{\text {, }}$, kē zariē mentioned. Causative verbs may be divided into direct causatives and indirect causatives.

Direct causatives are derived by adding the increment $-\bar{a} \mid(-l \bar{a} \bar{y})$ to an intransitive or a transitive root.

Indirect causatives are formed by prefixing -v-to the increment to make $-v \bar{a}$ $\lg$ (-lvã $\mid \mathrm{g})(\mathrm{S} 811)$. When the instrument is mentioned, the indirect causative is the preferred form.

If a transitive verb already contains the increment $-\vec{a}$ (because it is itself derived), then the increment cannot be added again. Such verbs have only the indirect causative in -vā.

[^21]
## 810 Direct causatives derived with the increment $-\bar{a}$

## Case I

The vowel in the intransitive root is short, and the root ends in a consonant. The increment - $\bar{a}$ is simply suffixed to the intransitive root to form the direct causative stem. If no intransitive exists, the suffix is added to the transitive root. Occasionally a shortened form of the transitive stem (rather than the intransitive root) is the basic form.

Sometimes there is not much difference in meaning between direct causatives and derived transitives. For example, the verb girānā ${ }^{\text {K/ }}$ (from girnā fall') can be construed as 'to let fall' (direct causative) and 'to drop' (transitive).

كre
kaṭnā, to be cut $\rightarrow$ katạnă, to have cut
كرنا
karnā, to do $\rightarrow$ karānā, to have done
توزُنا $\leftarrow$ ترؤانا
tọrnā, to break (tr.) $\rightarrow$ turānă, to get broken, break loose
زبيندار نر نصل كثّا لي -
zamindār nē fasal katā fī
The landlord got the harvest cut.

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { كَائُ نـ رستى ترُا لـى - } \\
& \text { gaē nē rassì turā } \bar{f} \\
& \text { The cow broke the rope. }
\end{aligned}
$$

## Case II

The intransitive root vowel is long, and the root ends in a consonant. The root vowel is shortened, and the increment $-\bar{a}$ is suffixed to form the direct causative stem.

كوبنا
duūbnā, to sink $\rightarrow$ ḍbānā, to sink something, drown someone
بهاگنا
bhägnā, to run away $\rightarrow$ bhagānā, to chase away, disperse
بييُهنا
baiṭhnā, to sit $\rightarrow$ biṭhānä, to seat, cause to sit

كسى نـ \$

Whoever sank it, now it has really gone down. (Prem Chand, Gödan)

pōlīs vālöḿn nē bhịr kō bhagā diyā. kuch bhāgē, magar kuch larnē lagē
The police dispersed the crowd. Some ran away, but some started to fight.

## Case III

The intransitive or transitive root ends in a long vowel. The root vowel is shortened, and the variant form of the increment, -lā $\searrow$, is suffixed to form the causative stem. ${ }^{5}$

چينا
pīnā, to drink $\rightarrow$ pilānā, to give to drink
رونا
rōnă, to cry (int.) $\rightarrow$ rulānā, to make cry
سونا $\leftarrow$ سلانا
sōnā, to sleep (int.) $\rightarrow$ sulänā, to put to sleep
دينا $\leftarrow$
dēnā, to give (tr.) $\rightarrow$ dilānā, to have given
This rule also predicts direct causatives from the following transitivcs:
سينا $\leftarrow$ سالانا
siñā, to stitch, sew $\rightarrow$ silān̄ā, to get (something) stitched
دهونا $\leftarrow$
dhōnā, to wash $\rightarrow$ dhulānā, to have (something) washed
.
māmं nē baccē kō sulā diyã
The mother put the baby to sleep.

5 Two irregular verbs are: chūnāā , 'to touch' (tr.) which forms the causative chuvānā اكهانا نا

munnī rō rahī hai, kis nē rulăyă hai?
Munni is crying; who has made her cry?

- مين ن قميص سلائى يـ
maim nē qamīs siläu hai
I have got the shirt stitched.
مانگنغ والـ كو ايكـ رويير دلا دو -
māngnẽ vālè kō èk rūpaya dilā dō
Have someone give the beggar a rupee.


## 811 Indirect causatives formed with the increment -vā

If the increment $\mid g-v a ̄(|l| v \bar{a})$ is substituted for the increment $\mid-\bar{a}(y$ lāa), a indirect causative stem is derived. In other respects, the rules for deriving the indirect causative are the same as those for deriving the direct causative ( $\$ 810$ ).

Indirect causatives express the causation of a transitive action through an instrument or intermediary agent (a noun or pronoun followed by by sē ${ }^{\sim}$, kē zariè something to, on or for the object. The instrument may be omitted, but is still implied. English translations must take context into account, and will vary.

Indirect causatives can be made for most Urdu verbs, and some dictionaries do not show them separately, but under the basic form from which they are derived. Indirect causatives cannot be made for intransitives which do not have derived transitives, such as ānä, 'to come, jānā, 'to go' and rahnā, 'to remain'.

Sometimes there is not much difference in meaning between indirect causatives and direct causatives. For example, the causatives silānā $\dot{\zeta} \chi_{\sim}$ and silvānā سلوانا both mean 'to get (something) stitched'. In other cases, there is a clear difference; for example, ḍubănāa \$ُبانا means 'to sink something', 'to let or make sink'; ḍubvānā צ'بوانا means 'to have (someone) sink something'.

## Case I, intransitive root

| bannā, to be made |  |
| :---: | :--- |
| بننوانا | banvānā, to cause to make, get made |
| بكنا | biknā, to be sold |
| bikvānā, to cause to sell, get sold |  |

Case I, transitive root

| Karnā, to do |  |
| :---: | :--- |
| karvānā, to cause to do, get done |  |
| ترونا | tōp̄ā̆, to break |
| turvānā, to cause to break |  |

Case II, intransitive root

| كو وّ | dübnnā, to sink |
| :---: | :---: |
| \$'بوانا | dubvānā, to cause to sink |
| بيُهنها | baithnnā, to sit |
| بطّهوانا | bithvānā, to cause to seat |

Case III, Intransitive root

| سونا | sōnā, to sleep |
| :--- | :--- |
| sulvānā, to cause to put to sleep |  |

Case III, transitive root
دينا dēnā, to give
دلوانا dilvānā, to cause to give
Case IV, causatives of double transitives

| ديك | dēkhnā, to see, look at |
| :---: | :---: |
| دكهوانا | dikhvānä, to cause to show |
| پرهرا | parhnā, to read, study |
| پِّرهوانا | paṛhvänā, to cause to read |

بادشاه نز بزدورون سـ قلعم بنوايا -
bādşāh nē mazdūrōṁ sē qila banvāyā
The emperor had the fort built by the labourers.

ham bā̧icica mālī sē sāf karvātē haimं
We have the garden cleaned by the gardener.
سهـانول كو بئهوا د ديجئغ
mehmānōrǹ kō biṭhvā dijiē
Please have the guests seated.

ye xat akram kē bāth bhijvā dū̀m $g \bar{i}$
I will send this letter with Akram.
مـانگنغ والم كو خوكيداركَ باته ايك روييم دلوا دو -
māngnē vālē kō caukīdār kē bāth èk rūpiya dilvã dō
Have the watchman give the beggar a rupee.
Causatives of double transitives can take an instrument and up to two objects.
أُستاد نـ بخِّ سِ جماعت كو كمهانى سنوائى -
ustād nē baccē sē jamāat kō kahānI sunvār
The teacher made the child tell the story to the class.
Compare

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { - بخ> ن جماعت كو هورى كمهانى سنائى } \\
& \text { baccē nē jamāat kō pūrī kahänī sunãı } \\
& \text { The child told the whole story to the class. }
\end{aligned}
$$

عارف صاحب ن سراج سِ بميي يرانا قلعم دكه
ārif sāhib nē sirāj sē hamêm purănă qiilã dikhvāyā
Mr. Arif had Sirajshow us the old fort.
Compare
سرانج
Siraj showed us the old fort.

When causatives are taken into account, most verbs make sets of three:
رـلنا -
milnā-milānā-milvānā
to meet, be available-to join, connect, mix-to have (someone) join, connect

ittifâq sē ārif sähib mil gaē
By chance Mr. Arif met us (was available).

ārif sāhib sē milă dijiē
Please connect me with Mr. Arif.

maim āprētar kē zariē āp kō ārif sāhib sē milvz̄ū̀n gio
I will have the switchboard connect you with Mr. Arif.
Some verbs make sets of four:
ككنا - كايُنا - كثنأنا - كتئوانا
kaṭāa-kätnä-kaṭānā-kaṭvānā
to be cut-to cut-to get cut-to have (someone) cut
فصل كـط گكي -
fasal kat gai
The harvest was cut.
كسـان نصل كالط (يّ
kisān fasal kāt rahẽ hairn
The farmers are cutting the harvest.
زهيندار نر فصل كثّا لى
zamīndăr nē fasal katā $\bar{I}$
The landlord got the harvest cut.
زبيندار نغ فصل هزدورون سـع كثئوا لى -
zaminndār nē̃ mazdūrōm̀ sē fasal kaṭvā $I I$
The landlord got the harvest cut by the labourers.

## 812 Causative denominative verbs

Denominative verb phrases consisting of a noun or adjective plus the verb karnā, 'to do' ( $\S 607$ ) change transitives to causatives by substituting the causative, karānä, 'to cause to be done' or the indirect causative, karvānā, 'to cause to do'.

سياستدان نـ لوگى جمع كرائـ -
siyāsatdān nē lōg jamā karāē
The politician got (a lot of) people collected.

- سياستدان نـ كاركنون سـر لوگ جمع كروائـ
siyãsatdān nē kārkunōm sè lōg jamã karvāē
The politician got the workers to collect the people.
آخر ديي نر اینا بييًا إس سكول ميي داخل كرايا ـ
āxir maim̉ nē apnā bêtạā is skūl mēm dāxil karāyā
At last I got my son entered in this school.

āxir maim nē sifârís kē zariè apnā bēṭā is skūl mēñ dāxil karvãyā
At last I got my son entered in this school by means of intercession.

813 Causative verbs in requests
Causative verbs are sometimes used in requcsts to soften them, by implying a higher status to the addressee.

- يم چار جوزُـ> سلوا ديجئُ
ye căr jōrē silvä dijiē
Please get these four suits stitched.
The speaker hopes to influence a busy tailor to do a big job quickly, so flatters the tailor by implying that he has assistants to do the stitching.

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { ذرا يمكام جلدى كروا ديجئُ } \\
& \text { zarā ye kām jaldì karvä dijieē } \\
& \text { Please get this work done quickly. }
\end{aligned}
$$

The addressee will do the work himself; the speaker is simply softening the request.
mperfective and perfective participles may be used adjectivally and adverbially. Matching forms of the perfective participle of hōnā (hūā ~ hūe ~ hūī) are often added to make participial phrases. For the forms of the imperfective participle, see $\S 603$; for the perfective participle, see $\S 604$. When participles are used as qualifiers, they are inflected like adjectives, and the feminine plural forms are not used.

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { كرتا بوا --كرتى بوئى - كرتـ بوئر } \\
& \text { kartā hūā ~ kartì hūī } \sim \text { kartē hūē, doing } \\
& \text { كيا بوا - كي بوئى --كيم بوئر } \\
& \text { kiyā hūā ~ kī hūī ~kiyē hūē, done }
\end{aligned}
$$

Conjunctive participles (§612) may be used adverbially (§913).

## IMPERFECTIVE PARTICIPLES

The imperfective participle describes actions or states which are incomplete (and often continuing) at the time shown by the main verb.

901 Adjectival use of imperfective participles
An imperfective participle may modify a noun like an adjective. Adjectival participles agree with the noun in number and gender, and usually occur in phrases with hūā ( $\sim$ hṻe $\sim$ h $\bar{u})$ ). Preceding a noun, adjectival participles are used attributively ( $\$ 306$ )
كانتيتى بوئى عورت رونٍ لكّي -

The shivering woman began to cry.
Compare
بوزهُى عورت رونر لنى -

The old woman began to cry.
گرتى بوئى ديوارون كو ايكى دهكا اور دو-
gittī hüü dīvāröm kō ēk dhakkā aur dō
Give another push to the falling walls.
Compare

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { هرانی ديواروU كو ايك دهكَا اور دو - } \\
& \text { Give another push to the old walls. }
\end{aligned}
$$

āp kō caltī has par caب̣hnā nahīm cähiè thā
You should not have tried to get on the moving bus.
Following a noun, adjectival participles are used predicatively (§306).

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { ذآكر بهاگتا بوا جا ربا تها - } \\
& \text { zākir bhāgtā hūā jā rahā thā } \\
& \text { Zakir was going along at a rum. } \\
& \text { ذاذ } \\
& \text { zākir gît gātā hūã nahā rahā thā } \\
& \text { Singing a song, Zakir was bathing. }
\end{aligned}
$$

## 902 Adverbial use of imperfective participles

An imperfective participle (usually in phrases with inflected hū̄a) may add a context to the main verb, or show the simultaneity of the two actions, like an adverb. Adverbial participles are masculine oblique singular.

ذاكر گيت گاتـ بوئر نها ربا تها -
zākir git găte būē nahā rahā thã
Zakir was singing a song as he bathed.

zākir gīt gàtê hüë̀ cal rahā thā
Zakir was singing a song as he walked.
An adverbial participle may precede the subject, if it is given more prominence than the main verb.

bhägtē hüē cōr sịhhiyōń sē gir pară
While fleeing, the thief fell down the stairs. (adverbial participle)

bhāgtā hūā cơr sị̄hiyōm sē gir parā
The fleeing thief fell down the stairs. (adjectival participle)

If the main verb is transitive and the tense is perfective, the subject takes ne and the participle is always masculine oblique singular.

zākir nē hamintē hūē ham kō xabar sunā1
Smiling, Zakir told us the news.

kuttē nē bhaumiktē hūē hamla kiyā
Barking, the dog attacked.

Imperfective participle + vaqt, 'while (verb)-ing'
The construction: imperfective participle + vaqt (-tẽ vaqt) shows an action or event which occurs simultaneously with the action or event of the main verb. The participle is oblique, and hūā ( hūue $\sim h \bar{u} \bar{i})$ is not used.

ابتحان ديت وقت ن بائيى طرف ديكهنا ن دائيى طرف -
imtihẩn dētē vaqt na bā̀m taraf dēkhnā na dāim̀ taraf
While writing the examination, do not look left nor right.

munir kē jãtē vaqt akram xudā hāfiz kahnē nahimi āyā
When Munir was leaving, Akram didn't come to say goodbye.
904 Imperfective participle $+\mathbf{h i}$, 'as soon as (VERB)'
The construction: imperfectrve partictple + hī (-tē hï) shows an action or even which occurs immediately prior to the action or event of the main verb. The participle is oblique, and hūā ( hūē $\sim h \bar{i} \bar{i})$ is not used.

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { وه لندن پهنحت } \\
& \text { vo landan pahuḿctē hī àp kō fön karē gà } \\
& \text { He will call you as soon as he reaches London. }
\end{aligned}
$$

If the (human) subject of the participle is not the subject of the main verb, it will be possessive, and will be followed by $k \bar{e}$.


## 905 Repeated imperfective participles

Repeated imperfective participles show continuing or repeated action which culminates in the action or event of the main verb. hūā ( $\sim$ hūe $\sim$ h $\bar{i} \bar{i}$ ) is not used. The participles are usually masculine oblique singular, especially in the Urdu of Delhi, however (a) if both participle and main verb have the same subject and (b) the subject is in the nominative case, the participle may agree with the subject. If the verb is a verb of motion, the participles may also agree with the subject when preceding it (see the last example in this section).

ميى سمجهاتى سمتجهاتى نهك گكي ليول -
maim samjhâtū samjhâāt thak gai hūm
I have got tired of explaining (it) again and again.
ميى نغ سمجهاتر سمجهاتر أُسِ دنا ليا -
maim nè samjhātê samjhātē usē manā liyā
I persuaded him by explaining (it) agaín and again.
سمجهاتخ سمجهاتخ بيّ تهك گثي بوU -
samjhātē samjhâtē maim thak gaī hūm
I have got tired of explaining (it) again and again.
لكهتي لكهتخ وه اديب بن گيا -
likhtē likhtê vo adīb ban gayā
By writing regularly, he became a writer.
وه لكهتخ لكهتخ اديب بن گيا -
vo likhtē likhtē adỉ ban gayā
He became a writer by writing regularly.
Repeated oblique imperfective participles may show an action that is not fully accomplished.

vo girté girtê baci
She nearly fell (but someone caught her).

dạ̄kū bhägtē bhăgtē pakcrā gayā
The robber was caught while attempting to flee.

Two different, but semantically related words may occur as repeated imperfective participles.
baccī cixtī cillätī andar à gaī
The little girl came inside screaming and yelling.

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { cixtī cillātī baccī andar à gaī } \\
& \text { Screaming and yelling, the little girl came inside. }
\end{aligned}
$$

## 906 Imperfective participles used as nouns

Adjectives may be used as nouns ( $\$ 319$ ), and the same is true of participles, although it is not common. Imperfective participles as nouns show an (uncompleted) condition of an omitted noun.

sōr macātē hūē kō cup karānā parā
The noisemaking (person) had to be told to be quiet.
The more usual way of expressing the above would be:

Sợ macānē vālē kō cup karānā parā
The noisemaker had to be told to be quiet.

## PERFECTIVE PARTICIPLES

The perfective participle is a verbal adjective. It describes (a) completed actions or processes which result in the condition of the subject or object at the time shown by the main verb, (b) actions completed prior to the action shown by the main verb. Compare the imperfective and perfective participles in the following sets.

## Imperfective participle

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { گرتى بوئى ديواريي } \\
& \text { girtī hūīđivārēm } \\
& \text { falling walls }
\end{aligned}
$$

pōlīs välơm nè ghar jaltā hūā pāyā
The police found the house on fire.

## Perfective participle

 toppledwalls

يوسيس واسسول نخ گهر جلا سوا پايا pōlīs vālöm nē ghar jalā hūā pāyā The police found the house burned down.

## 907 Adjectival use of perfective participles

A perfective participle may modify a noun like an adjective. Adjectival participles agree with the noun in number and gender, and usually occur in phrases with hūā $\sim$ hūē $\sim$ hūī. Preceding a noun, adjectival participles are used attributively (§306).

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { پپهُى بوئى برزنى } \\
& \text { phậ̣̆ hūī mirzaī } \\
& \text { a torn quilted coat } \\
& \text { محبت سم بهرـ> بوئغ سنظ } \\
& \text { mahabbat sẽ bharē hūē lafz } \\
& \text { words filled with love }
\end{aligned}
$$


zamin par girēe hūē tamām kā $a z$ az haṭā đjujiē
Please remove all the papers (that have) fallen on the floor.
Following a noun, adjectival participles are used predicatively (§306). If two participles occur in the phrase, hū̄̄ is dropped.
(a) Qualifying the subject, the participle agrees with it in gender and number.

> برزئى پیهُىى توئى تهىى -
mirzaī phaṭ h $\bar{\omega} \bar{i}$ thī
The quilted coat was torn.

$$
\begin{array}{ll}
\text { Compare } & -\quad \text { - } \\
& \text { mirzai purānī thí } \\
& \text { The quilted coat was old. }
\end{array}
$$

##  <br> à kuch thakē hüẽ nazar ä rahē haim <br> You look rather tired.

(b) Qualifying the object, the participle agrees with objects which are in the nominative case ( $\$ 109$ ). If the object is marked by kō, the participle is masculine singular by default.

آتپ نخ المارى كهلى (بوئى) كيول چهورزى تهى ؟
àp nēe almārì khulī (hūi) kyōm chọ̄̃i thī?
Why did you leave the cupboard open?
 darvāzā khulā (hūā) pā kar caukīdār nē ghantịi bajā̄ Finding the door open, the watchman rang the bell.

in cūṛiyṓm kō chupā hūā pā kar maim bhaumícakkī rah gaī
Finding these bangles hidden, I was astonished.

## Stative verbs

Perfective participles of stative verbs show a continuing state (in the same way that stative verbs are used in the immediate past to show states which commenced with an event in the past, and continue into the present ( $\$ 631$ )).

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { وه سيبيا بوا هرّه ربا تها - } \\
& \text { vo lêtā hūãa paṛh rahā thā }
\end{aligned}
$$

He was reading (while) lying down (in a lying position).

Don't wake a sleeping dog.

## 908 Adverbial use of perfective participles

The perfective participle may be used conjunctively ( $\$ 612$ ), to describe an action which precedes the action or state of the main verb. They may qualify the subject or the object; the participle often has an object of its own; in every case, they are masculine oblique singular. hū̄ē is usually dropped.

## Qualifying the subject

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { tum ye thailā liyẽ kahām̉ jà rahē hō? } \\
& \text { Where are you going with (lit. taken) this bag? }
\end{aligned}
$$

Compare
تم يـ تهيل لـ كر كهأل جا وبه بو ؟
tum ye thailā lē kar kahāäm jā rahē hō?
Where are you going with (lit. having taken) this bag?

## Qualifying the object


faqīr nē kuttē kō rāstē mḕm lêṭé hūē dēkh kar rāsta badal liyā
The faqir, seeing the dog lying on the path, changed the path.
-In the previous example, the use of the oblique participial phrase lēṭĕ hūē implies that the dog lay down on the path before the faqir arrived.

Contrast the following sentence in which a perfective participle is used predicatively, not conjunctively:

maim̉ nē ēk kuttā rāstē mēm̉ sōyā hưāa pāyā
I found a dog sleeping on the path.
-which merely describes the condition of the dog.
In the following sentence, the conjunctive perfective participle is used adverbially.
آبپ كو يهان آئـ كتنا عرصم بو گيا
āp kö yahām̉́n âc kitnā arsa hō gayà hai?
How long has it been since you came here?
The core sentence, to which the phrase yahäm $\bar{a} \bar{E}$ is added, is an impersonal construction with a subject marked by kō ( $\$ 506$ ):

آلي كو كتنا عرصم تو گیا
$\bar{a} p$ kō kitnā arsa hō gayā hai?
How much time have you passed?

## 909 Adverbial perfective participles in expressions of time

The perfective participles of hōnä, 'to be', jānā, 'to go', rahnā, 'to remain', caṛnāa, 'to rise' and bitnā, 'to pass' are used adverbially in expressions of time (see also §131I).

> پانْج سال بوئِ أُس كى تعليهم پورى بوئى تهي -
păric sāl hūẽ us kī tālīm pūrī hūī thī
Five years ago (five years having become) his education was completed.

## itnī răt gaē sahr mēm ghümnā ṭīk nahīm

So late at night (so much night having gone), it isn't safe to roam about the city.

machērā kuch rāt rahē uṭhtā hai
The fisherman gets up very early (some night having remained).
تم إتنا دن چرُه> كيول سوئـ بوئغ بو ؟
tum itnā din carhē kyōm sōē hūē hō?
Why are you asleep so late (so much day having risen)?

## 910 Repeated perfective participles

Perfective participles may be repeated to show continuing action; however, since perfective participles have the aspect of completeness, the semantics of these sequences are less straightforward than with repeated imperfective participles. If the main verb is in a perfective tense and the subject is in the nominative case (i.e., the verb is intransitive), the participles usually agree with the subject in gender and number. In all other cases the participles are masculine oblique singular. hūā ( hūie $\sim h \bar{u} \bar{i}$ ) is not used.

Repeated perfective participles of stative verbs show a continuing state which began with an event in the past.

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { ye kharī kharï usē pukärtï rahï }
\end{aligned}
$$

She kept standing and calling (him). (Prem Chand, Gödān)
The main verb may show culmination:

ye sēb parē parẽ xaräb hō gaē haim
These apples have been lying around so long they have gone rotten.
Repeated perfective participles of verbs of motion occur, but are semantically somewhat anomalous, as they show the continuation of a completed action. They suggest motion which is haphazard or frantic.
Tكرم بهاگا بهاگا بهارــ گهر آيا -
akram bhăgă bhăgā hamãré ghar āyā
Akram rushed frantically to our house.


## akram nē bhāgtē bhāgtē bas pakar lī

Akram ran after the bus and caught it (purposefully, to get away).

sah daäktar kyōm parēsān aur ghabrāē ghabräē phirtē haim?
Why are all the doctors running about worried and panic-stricken?
Two semantically related perfective participles may be used in the same way as repeated participles, functioning both as adjectives and predicate complements.

```
يرُّها لكها آدبى
parhā likhāādmì
an educated person (read written person)
```


us kū urdū tự̛̣̣̄ phüṭī hai
His Urdu is broken.
The perfective participles of related intransitives and causatives (or transitives and causatives) may be used idiomatically as adjectives.
~ـ
silè silàe kaprē
ready-madeclothes (< silnā, to be stitched + silān̄̄, to get stitched)
سنى سنائى بات
sunì sunāa bāt
hearsay (< sunnā, to hear + sunānā, to tell)

911 Perfective participles used as nouns
Adjectives may be used as nouns (§319), and the same is true of participles, although it is not common.

pạ̣hē likhṑn kō aisā kām nahïm karnā cāhiē
Educated (people) shouldn't do such a thing.

paṛhē bayair tum kãmyāb nahīm hō saktē
Without studying you cannot succeed (in the examination).

## 912 Perfective participles in compound verbs

Perfective participles may occur as main verbs in compound verb sequences (\$718-§719).

## CONJUNCTIVE PARTICIPLES

## 913 Conjunctive participles used adverbially

Conjunctive participles describe two actions or events which take place in a sequence ( $\$ 612$ ). Conjunctive participles may be used adverbially.

> وه گهبراكر بولا ...
vo ghabrā kar bōlā ..
He said anxiously (having become anxious) ...
They may also function instrumentally:

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { وه پان بيحِ كَ روزی كماتا } \\
& \text { vo pān bēc kar rōzī kamätã bai } \\
& \text { He earns a living by selling (having sold) betel leaf preparation. }
\end{aligned}
$$

## 914 Repeated roots in conjunctive particlples

The root in a conjunctive participle may be repeated (see also $\S 613$ ).

bătḕm tō hamis hamis kē kar rahè thē
He was talking cheerfully (having smiled-smiled). (Prem Chand, Gödîn)

caltē hūē mur mur kar vo hamãri taraf dēkhtï rahi
While walking, she kept turning around and looking at us time and again.
The conjunctive participles of two different but semantically related words may be used adverbially.

سوتج - سمجه كر بات كريى
sôc samajh kar bāt karēèn
You should choose your words carefully (having thought-understood).

## 10 WORD ORDER AND AGREEMENT IN SENTENCES

The following remarks are intended as an overview of Urdu word order and agreement for the student, and not as a comprehensive treatment of Urdu syntax. The subject is also treated in other other sections of this work, to which the reader is referred for information and more examples.

## WORD ORDER

## 1001 Word order in sentences

The basic word order in Urdu sentences is subject - predicate

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { گه } \\
& \text { chōrā + daurtā hai } \\
& \text { The horse runs. } \\
& \text { kuttā + barā hai } \\
& \text { The dog is big. }
\end{aligned}
$$

If there is an object, it comes in between the subject and predicate.
كهورًا
ghọ̄ā cärā khătā hai.
A horse eats fodder.
The unemphatic word order for simple declarative sentences is:
SUbJect - object + kō - Time adverb - place adverb - smple object - verb
.
malik săhib mujhē har rōz yahāḿn căĕ pilătê haim
Mr . Malik gives me tea to drink here every day.

maim ãp kō kal urdū bāzār mẽm è êk acchī dukān dikhāūm̉ gā
I will show you a good shop in the Urdu Bazaar tomorrow.
An adverb of time is often given prominence by placing it right after the subject, or even first in the sentence. An adverb of place may also be given prominence by moving it forward in the sentence. The order of the subject, object and verb
is rarely changed. If the verb provides the necessary information about the person, number and gender of the speaker, the subject may be omitted.
maim kal āp kō urdū bāzār mēŕn ēk acchī dukān dikhāūmin gā
Tomorrow I will show you a good shop in the Urdu Bazaar.

$k a l(m a i m)$ āp kō urdū bäzār mēñ ēk acchī dukān dikhāūm̉n gā
Tomorrow I will show you a good shop in the Urdu Bazaar.

## 1002 Objects

Indirect objects marked by kō or its alternate forms ( $\$ 210$ ) precede unmarked direct objects. (See $\S 505$ for kō with objects.)
baccī nē mehmān kō phül pḗs kiyē
The little girl offered flowers to the guest.
شابد ن
stāhid nē apnī vālida kō tār bhējā
Shahid sent a telegram to his mother.

## 1003 Noun phrases

Adjectives precede nouns which they qualify.

Adjectives may be preceded by a modifier, such as bahut, sirf or zyāda.

In a sequence of adjectives, possessive adjectives precede other adjectives.

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { آپپ كا دلجّسپ كام } \\
& \text { āp kā dilcasp kām } \\
& \text { your interesting work }
\end{aligned}
$$

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { bahut dilcasp kām sirf garm cāē pīō } \\
& \text { very interesting work Drink only hot tea. }
\end{aligned}
$$

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { دلُّسپپ كام } \\
& \text { dilcasp kām } \\
& \text { interesting work }
\end{aligned}
$$

Numerals, demonstratives and interrogatives follow possessives, but precede other adjectives.

آپ كى وه برُى لغت كهان ركهى نی ؟
āp kī vo baṛi luryat kahāàn rakhī hai?
Where is that big dictionary of yours kept?

mērē dō baṛè bhāı karācī mēmin parhtē haim
My two elder brothers study in Karachi.
هلى صاحبب كا كون سا رشت داركل آيا تها ؟
malik sāhib kā kaun sā ristēdār kal āyā thā?
Which of Mr. Malik's relatives came yesterday?
Postpositions (Chapter 5) follow nouns or pronouns, and mark (a) grammatical functions, (b) location, movement or extent in space and time. Whenever a noun is followed by a postposition it occurs in the oblique case ( $\S 110$ ). Pronouns also occur in the oblique case before postpositions (§208), except for the first and second person pronouns when preceding the postposition nē (§209).

|  | - أس كو بولأؤ |
| :---: | :---: |
| bairē kō bulāō | us kō buiāo |
| Call the waiter. | Call him. |

The adverb bhī, 'also' or the emphatic particle hī normally follow the postposition ( $\$ 1106$ ). Adverbs are treated under $\S 1004$, below.

خانسامان كو بهي بلاؤ -
xānsāmām kō bhī bulàō
Call the cook too.

خانسامان كو بی بالاؤ ، بير< كو نهيين -
xănsămāmín kō hï bưāō, bairē kō nahüun Call the cook (emph.), not the waiter.

## 1004 Adverbs

In simple declarative sentences, adverbs of time, place and manner come between the subject and the predicate. Adverbs of time precede adverbs of place, and adverbs of manner come last before the verb, as do modal adverbs.

- بين بر روز يهال نهيی كهاتا بون
maim har rōz yahäàm nahīm khātā hūm
I don't eat here every day.


## Simple objects follow adverbs.

هي بر روز يهان چائُ چيتا بول -
maim har rōz yahăm̉ cāē pītä būm
I drink tea here every day.
In unemphatic sentences, objects followed by kō or its alternate forms ( $\$ 210$ ) precede adverbs of time and place. However the order of adverbs is quite flexible.

malik sähib mujhē har rōz yahām̀n cāē pilātē haim
Mr. Malik gives me tea to drink here every day.
هر ووز مين يهال چائر پيتا بول -
har rōz maim yahāản cāē pītā hūm
Every day I drink tea here.
يهان بيى چائُ نهيه پيتا -
yahāàm maimé cāe nahīñ pītā
Here I don't drink tea.
phir ( $\$ 420$ ) receives prominence in a sentence. It usually precedes an object and may precede the subject. The same is true of adverbs of manner which signal a departure from the usual, such as pahlē, 'first', āxir kār, 'at last', or jaldi, 'quickly'.

I'll call the cook first, then the waiter
آخر كار ذاكر كا خط بل سی گیا -
äxir kār zäkir kā xat mil hī gayā
At last, Zakir's letter was received.
The adverb bhī, 'also' (\$418) or the emphatic particle hī (§1105) immediately follow the word they refer to.

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { - وه بهى بادشابي سسجد ديكهيي گ, } \\
& \text { vo bhī bādsähī masjid dēkhēm̀ gē } \\
& \text { They too will see the royal mosque. }
\end{aligned}
$$

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { وه بادشابيى مسجد بهى د يكهين كـ ـ } \\
& \text { vo bādsāhī̀ masjid bhī dēkhēm̀n gē } \\
& \text { They will see the royal mosque too. }
\end{aligned}
$$

When a sentence contains two or more adverbs, the adverb of time comes first, followed by the adverb of place, and the adverb of manner or modification. If there is more than one adverb of time, the order is YEAR - MONTH - DAY - HOUR. See $\S 427$ for examples.

## 1005 Negative sentences

Negatives (§417) usually come right before the verb phrase. If the phrase contains the present tense auxiliary hai (haim, hūm, etc.), the auxiliary is often dropped.

سبزى خور گوشت نهيي كهاتـ - ستا
sabzī xōr gōŜt nahīm khātē
Vegetarians don't eat meat.
وه پهله سبزى خور نهيِ تها ــ
vo pahlè sabzī xōr nahīm thā
He was not a vegetarian before.

- آپ
äp kal yahāṁn na äiyē
Please don't come here tomorrow.


## 1006 Interrogative sentences

Interrogative words usually come right before the verb.

| ¢ |  |
| :---: | :---: |
| ye kyă bai? | darvāzè par kaun hai? |
| What is this? | Who is at the door? |
| آلپ چائر كب | آب چاثٌ كهها |
| âp cãe kab pitē haimin | āp cāē kahăṁ pite haim? |
| When do you drink tea? | Where do you drink tea? |

Interrogative adverbs may precede direct objects (although not objects marked by kō, or subjects).

āp kab cāe pitē haiḿ?
When do you drink tea?

The interrogative kyā, used to introduce a yes-or-no question (and not in the sense of 'what?'), usually comes at the beginning of the sentence.

كيا آت سبزی خور بي ؟
kyā āp sabzī xōr haim?
Are you a vegetarian?
kyā may also come at the end of short questions, like a tag:

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { آپ سبزى خور بيس كيا ؟ } \\
& \text { āp sabzī xör haìm kyā? } \\
& \text { Aren't you a vegetarian? }
\end{aligned}
$$

See also conditional sentences ( $\$ 609$ ) and order of clauses in relative-correlative sentences (§1103).

## AGREEMENT

## 1007 Subject-verb agreement

Intransitive verbs agree with subject nouns or pronouns in gender and number (for agreement with transitive verbs, see §1011).

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { ليزّا دوزلتا }
\end{aligned}
$$

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { لرّا لِّا دورّتا تها }
\end{aligned}
$$

## 1008 Verb phrases

Most verb constructions are phrases consisting of a participle and an auxiliary verb. Participles show gender and number (but not person); masculine participles show number, however feminine participles show plural number only when there is no auxiliary verb (either because it is dropped following a negative ( $\$ 1005$ ), or because no auxiliary occurs in the construction, as in the irrealis ( $\$ 622$ ) or simple past ( $(630)$ ). The present tense auxiliary verb shows number and person, but not gender; the past tense auxiliary verb shows number and gender, but not person ( $\$ 605-\S 606$ ). So it would be more accurate to say that verb phrases as a whole (not simply verbs) agree with subjects in gender and number.

## Verb phrases with participles and auxiliaries

| هي | maim daurtā hüm | I (m.) run. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| بيّ دورّتى بول | maim daurtio hūm | I (f.) run. |
| تمه دورّت | tum daưtē hō | You (m.) run. |
| تمّ دورّتى بو | tum daurtī hō | You (f.) run. |
|  | ham daurte haim | We (m.) run. |
| \%هم دورّتى هِ | ham daurtī haim | We (f.) run. |
| وه دورّتا | vo daurtà hai | He runs. |
| وه دورّتى | vo daurti hai | She runs. |

Feminine plural participles

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { ham nahïmi daurtïn We (f.) don't run. } \\
& \text { بهم دوزُيـ } \\
& \text { ham daurịim } \\
& \text { We (f.) ran. }
\end{aligned}
$$

## 1009 Agreement with mixed subjects

If the subject of the sentence is a phrase containing two or more inanimate nouns, the verb agrees with the noun nearest to it.

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { باغ نسب يهول } \\
& \text { bāy mēmं phül, paudē aur àm kā pēr lagā hūāa hai } \\
& \text { Flowers, vegetables and a mango tree are planted in the garden. }
\end{aligned}
$$

If the phrase contains two or more animate nouns, the verb is plural.

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { كتّا اور بلى للُ ريه تهـ - } \\
& \text { kuttă aur billī lar rahē thē } \\
& \text { The dog and cat were fighting. }
\end{aligned}
$$

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { mērā bhāi aur bahen khēl rahē haim } \\
& \text { My brother and sister are playing. }
\end{aligned}
$$

## 1010 Agreement with transitive verbs

Transitive verbs agree with the subject only in imperfective tenses. In perfective tenses, transitive verbs agree with nominative direct objects, and subjects take the postposition $\mathbf{D E}$. (See $\S 510, \S 629$ for details and examples.)

## Perfective intransitive


ghöri dauri
The mare ran

## Perfective transitive

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { ghōịi nē cärā khā liyā hai } \\
& \text { The mare has eaten fodder. }
\end{aligned}
$$

## 1011 Agreement with impersonal verbs

 or some uses of milnā $\quad$ نلنا or parnā the sentence. The subject is followed by the postposition $k \bar{o} \quad$ or its alternate forms ( $\S 210$ ). (See $\S 641$ for a discussion of impersonal constructions and $\S 506$ for the postposition kō marking subjects.)

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { mujhē paisa cähiē } \\
& \text { I need money. }
\end{aligned}
$$


nujhè dṑ hazär nüpaē cähiēni
ineed two thousand rupees.

## 1012 Mixed transitivity

## Mixed transitivity with conjunctive participles

When two separate statements are transformed into a single sentence by means of an conjunctive participle (\$612), it may happen that one of the verbs is transitive and the other intransitive. In such a case, the verb in the main clause (usually the second verb) determines the transitivity of the sentence. If the main verb is transitive, the subject of both clauses is followed by nē ( $\$ 510, \S 629$ ) when the verb is in perfective tenses. If the main verb is intransitive, the entire sentence is treated as intransitive, and $\overline{\mathrm{e}} \overline{\mathrm{e}}$ is not used.

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { ريس پرُهو كر گهر گيا - } \\
& \text { maim pạ̣h kar ghar gayā } \\
& \text { Having studied, I went home. } \\
& \text { - } \\
& \text { maíni nē ghar jã kar parthā } \\
& \text { Having gone home, I studied. }
\end{aligned}
$$

## Mixed transitivity in compound verbs

In compound verb constructions (Chapter 7) intransitive main verbs usually occur with intransitive vectors, and transitive main verbs with transitive vectors. However, there are exceptions to this rule. The resulting sequences are always treated as intransitive. In other words, both the main verb and the vector verb must be transitive in order for the entire sequence to be treated as transitive. See $\$ 712$ and $\$ 713$

## 1013 Adjective-noun agreement

Adjectives agree with nouns in gender, number and case (however adjectives have no feminine plural form). See $\S 303-\S 305$.

## Nominative

بُّى گهروزى
bari ghōrī, (a) big mare
barē ghōrē, big horses

## Oblique

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { } \\
& \text { كا }
\end{aligned}
$$

However, only adjectives which have suffixes that inflect to show gender and number (marked adjectives) change to show agreement. Unmarked adjectives do not change. This is discussed in detail in $\S 301-\$ 302$.

If two or more nouns are qualified by one adjective, the adjective agrees with the noun nearest to it. See $\S 305$.

```
آپكى والده اور بهائى
```



```
your mother and brother
```


## 11 RELATIVE-CORRELATIVE SENTENCES

## THE STRUCTURE OF RELATIVE SENTENCES

1101 Relative words and their counterparts
Urdu distinguishes systematically between the categories 'near', 'far', 'interrogative' and 'relative'. An overview of symmetrical sets of words beginning with $\mathbf{y} \sim \mathbf{i} \sim \mathbf{a}$, 'near', $\mathbf{v} \sim \mathbf{u}$, 'far', $\mathbf{k}$ (interrogative), and $\mathbf{j}$ (relative) is given in Table $11, \S 309$. Table $25, \S 1102$ lists the relative words in the set along with their corresponding 'far' counterparts. The relative words are used in relative clauses, while the 'far' words are used in correlative clauses.

## 1102 Structure of relative-correlative sentences

Relative-correlative sentences can be considered as transformed from two simpler sentences.

vonêk kàm karē gā. vo phal pāē gā
Hedoes good deeds. He will reap rewards.
$\rightarrow \quad-\quad$ جو نيك كام كربا
jō nēk kām karē gà vo phal pāé gà
The one who does good deeds will reap rewards.
وه شخص رشوت كهاتا بـ - وه شخص گناه كرتا بـ -
vo Saxs risvat khātā hai. vo Saxs gunāh kartă hai
That person takes bribes. That person commits a sin.

jō saxsrísvat khätā hai, vo gunāh kartā hai
The person who takes bribes commits a sin.
In the examples above, the relative word $\mathbf{j o}$, 'who' introduces the relative clause. The correlative clause is introduced by vo, 'he', 'that' ( $(201, \S 202$ ). Formerly there was a group of correlative words beginning with $t$-, of which the adverb tab is one surviving member. (Other surviving members are tyüm, which occurs
mainly in compounds with jūm, and not as a correlative word ( $\S 1120$ ); and taisā, which occurs only in a compound with jaisā (§1108).) The 'far' words now function as correlative words (and will be referred to as such in this chapter)

Table 25: Relative (j) words and their 'far' ( $\mathbf{v} \sim \mathbf{u}$ ) counterparts
$\underset{\text { RELATIVE }}{\mathbf{j}} \underset{\text { FAR }}{ } \quad \mathbf{v} \sim \mathbf{u} \quad$ i,

Pronoun

| ج | jo, who, which | g | v, hester |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Adjective |  |  |  |
| ج | jo, who, which | 9 | vo, he/she/it |
| جيبس | jaisā, such as |  | vaisā, like that |
| جتنا | jitnā, as much | اُتُنا | utnā, that much |
| Adverb |  |  |  |
| جهن | jahâm, where | وبٌ | vahām, there |
| جدهر | jidhar, whither | اُدهر | udhar, thither |
| جب | jab, when | تب) | tab, then) |
| جول | jümh, as, like | وول | vüm, so (obsolete) |
| جس جِّ | jis jagah | اُس جهِّ | us jagah |
|  | in the place that |  | in that place, there |
| جس طرف | jis taraf | أُس طف | us taraf |
|  | (in) the direction that |  | in that direction |
| جس وقت | jis vaqt | اُس وقت | us vaqt |
|  | at the time that |  | at that time |
| جس طرح | jis tarah | اُس طرح | us tarah |
|  | in the way that |  | that way |

The typical relative sentence is characterized by symmetry of both clauses. The clauses may make two statements about a single subject (relative pronoun), locate two subjects in one place or time (relative adverb) or express a similiarity or comparison (relative adjective).

A relative clause with jö can often be replaced by a construction of obliQue

```
INFINITIVE + vãlă (§645):
```

نيكى كامكرنر والا يهل پائ گا -
nēk kā̀m karnē vālā phal pāē gā
The doer of good deeds will reap rewards.
رشوت كهانٍ والا شخص گناهكرتا به -
risvat khānē vālā Saxs gunāh kartā hai
The person taking bribes commits a sin.

## 1103 Order of clauses in relative-correlative sentences

The relative clause normally precedes the correlative clause in unemphatic speech. However the order of the clauses can be reversed, with a corresponding shift in focus to the first clause.
وه پهل پانُ گا جو نيكـ كام كرسی گا -

## vo phal pāē gă jō nēk kām karē gà

The one who will reap rewards is he who does good deeds.
If $j \overline{0}$ is used adjectivally, qualifying a noun ( $\mathbf{j o}$ saxs) in the unemphatic sentence, the noun remains in the first clause when the order is reversed.

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { وه شخص كناه كرتا بي جو رشوت كهاتا بـ - } \\
& \text { vo Saxs gunäh kartā hai jō rísvat khātā hai } \\
& \text { That person commits a sin, whotakes bribes. }
\end{aligned}
$$

The relative clause may also be put inside the correlative clause. English speakers may be tempted to do this because it most nearly corresponds to English usage, but it is the least frequent order in Urdu.

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { vo saxs jö riśsvat khātā hai, gunāh kartā hai } \\
& \text { The person who takes bribes commits a sin. }
\end{aligned}
$$

## 1104 Stipulative relative clauses

In the following example, the relative clause stipulates the thing which fulfils the condition in the correlative clause. The verb is in the subjunctive.

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { ريس ايسط آدبى ركهوU گا جو ايماندار سو - } \\
& \text { maiun aisä ädmī rakhüñ gã jō īmāndăr hō } \\
& \text { I will hire a man who is honest. }
\end{aligned}
$$

## 1105 Correlatives specified by hī

Correlative words are very often made more specific by the addition of the emphatic particle hī (\$1205).
jō nēk kām karē gā vahī phal pāē gā
It is the one who does good deeds who will reap rewards.

## THE RELATIVE PRONOUN jō

A relative-correlative sentence with $j \overline{0}$ is one in which each clause makes a statement about a single subject (identity of subject). The nominative form jö is both singular and plural, but there are distinct singular and plural oblique forms.

## 1106 Nominative form of jō

jō may function as a pronoun or adjectivally, qualifiying a noun. When jō comes first in the sentence, it usually qualifies a noun. When the relative clause comes in second place, or is embedded in the correlative clause, jō is more often used pronominally. Examples of sentences with the relative pronoun $\mathbf{j o ̄}$ are given below and in §1102.

$j o ̄ ~ b a ̈ t ~ a ̄ p ~ k a h ~ r a h e ̄ ~ h a i m, ~ v o ~ b a h u t ~ a h a m ~ h a i ~$
The thing (which) you are saying is vcry important.
وه بات بهت انهم بي جو آپپ
vo bāt bahut aham hai $j \bar{j}$ āp kah rahē haim
The thing that is very important is what you are saying.
jö sometimes links juxtaposed contrasting clauses (see also §1230).

vo $j \bar{o}$ daulatmand hai, $\gamma$ aríb ādmi kā dukh kyā jānē?
How would he, who is rich, understand the suffering of a poor person?

## 1107 Oblique and plural forms of jō

The oblique and plural forms of $j \bar{o}$ are shown in Table 26, on p. 200. jō has a variant oblique plural form which occurs only before nē.

Table 26: Oblique and plural forms of jō

|  | Nominative | Oblique | $+\mathrm{n} \overline{\mathrm{E}}$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Singular | ج <br> jō, who, which? | جس jis | $\sum_{\text {jis nē }}^{\text {ج }}$ |
| Plural | jō, who, which? | جن جin | جنهول نـ jinhōm̀ nē |

## Examples

جس بات كا ذكر آپ كر ريّ بين وه بهت انهم بی -
jis bā̆t kā zikr āp kar rahē haim, vo bahut aham hai
The thing (which) you are mentioning is very important.

jis nē ye kitāb likhĭ hai, vo măhir-e-tālīm hai
The one who has written this book is an expert on education.

jinhōmin nē hifâzatã ṭika lagväyā, vo ṭhīk rahē
Those who got a prcventive vaccination remained healthy.
The oblique forms of jō may take the alternate forms of $\mathbf{k o}$ ( $\S 210$ ).
اُس آدمى كاكيا نام يه جسع (جس كو) آب ن بلايا تها ؟
us ādmī kā kyā nām hai, jisē (jis kõ) ăp nē bulāyā thā?
What was the name of the person (whom) you invited?


When are the people (whom) you invited coming?
jis is the form of jõ used in relative adverbial phrases, which are always oblique (see Table $25, \S 1102$ ):

| جس وتت | jis vaqt, at the time that (\$1116) |
| :---: | :---: |
| جس جِّكِ | jis jagah, in the place that (\$1110) |
| جس طرف | jis taraf, (in) the direction that (\$1111) |
| جس طرح | jis tarah, in the way that (\$1119) |

## RELATIVE ADJECTIVES

Relative adjectives express a similarity or comparison between nouns in the relative and correlative clauses. In English they are often translated by words or phrases that describe similarity/comparison: 'such', 'like', 'just like', 'as'. They agree with the noun they qualify.

## 1108 jaisā

In the nominative case jaisă may be used adjectivally, qualifying a noun ('like', 'similar to') or adverbially, qualifying a verb ('as'). The oblique case, jaisē, is also used adverbially and is described in §1117.


```
jaisā qälīn āp kē pās hai, vaisā hī mujhē cāhiē
I want a carpet just like the one you have.
جيساسرو گ ويسا بهرو گ -
jaisā karō gē, vaisā bharō gē
As you sow, so shall you reap (as you do, so will you fill).
```

When jaisā expresses the equivalency of two things ('two of the same') the correlative word (vaisā) may be omitted.

- بـيس آپ
maima äp kē jaisā qãlin cähtā hūm ${ }^{1}$
I want a carpet like yours.
- وه بلى شير جيسى
vo billi sêr jaisi hai
That cat is like a tiger.
jaisā-taisä means 'ordinary' and is a euphemism for 'disgraceful'. Some compounds formed with taisa are used in idioms.

| جيس كا تيسا <br> jaisē kā taisā verbatim, unalt |
| :---: |
|  |  |
|  |  |

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { جيسر كو تيسـ_ } \\
& \text { jaisē kō taisā } \\
& \text { tit for tat }
\end{aligned}
$$

[^22]جيس تيس
jaisē-taisē
by hook or by crook

kambaxt nē jaisē taisē vīzā lē liyā aur bāhar calā gayā
The wretch got a visa by fair means or foul, and went abroad.

## 1109 jitnā

jitnă refers to amount or quantity, and is often used in comparisons.

jitnī dhūp pākistān mēén hō̃̃ỉ hai, yahăm̉ utnīnahīm hōtī
There is not as much sunlight here as there is in Pakistan.
In sentences with jitnā, the correlative clause more often comes in first place.


In the city the number of unemployed is not as much as in the countryside.
When the amount or quantity is identical in both clauses, the correlative (utnā) may be omitted.

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { جتن بليى ‘لـ آؤو - } \\
& \text { jitnē milē̆́n, lê āō } \\
& \text { Bring as many as may be available. }
\end{aligned}
$$

## RELATIVE ADVERBS OF PLACE

## 1110 jahām, jis jagah

jahămi and jis jagah locate the subjects of the relative and correlative clauses in the same place (symmetry of place). In English this is rendered by words or phrases like: 'where ... there', 'the same place as'.
> - جهان صنعتى ترقّى بوتى يّ وبا بيروزگا
> jahäṁ sanatī taraqqī hōt̄̆ hai, vahăm̉ bērōzgārī kam hōt̄ hai
> Where industrial development exists, there is less unemployment.

The preceding sentence is based on two simple sentences:
وبان صنعتى ترقّى بوتى -

There is industrial development there. There is less unemployment there.

jis jagah āp kā nayā makān hai, us jagah bāץ hai na?
There is a park at the same place your new bouse is, isn't there?

## 1111 jidhar, jis taraf

jidhar and jis taraf orient the subjects of the relative and correlative clauses in the same direction (symmetry of direction). This can be translated by words or phrases like 'where', 'the same way (as)'.

jidhar āp jāēm gē (udhar) maim bhī āūm gi
I shall go (come) where you may go.

jis taraf sē āē haim, us taraf vāpas calēm̀
You should go back the same way you came.
The preceding sentence is based on two simple sentences:

(ăp) us taraf sē äē haim. (āp) us taraf vāpas calèm
You came from that way. You should go back that way.

## RELATIVE ADVERBS OF TIME

1112 jab
Clauses introduced by jab ... tab locate the subjects of the relative and correlative clauses at the same or a close time (symmetry of time).

[^23]Clauses introduced by jab ... to often express a relation of temporal sequentiality.
جب بارش ختم بوئى تو سب لوگى هِلـِ گِ -

## jab bārís xatm hūī tō sab lōg calē gaē

When (after) the rain finished, everybody left.

## jab ham pahumicēm gēe tō phătal band hō cukā hō gā

When we arrive, the gate will already be locked.
If the second clause begins with tō, jab is sometimes deleted in the first clause
عورت نـ بابر آكر دروازه كهولا تو برُهئى نـ جُهكى سلام كيا -
aurat nē bāhar ā kar darvãza khōlä tō̄baب̣haĩ nē jhuk kar salā̀m kiyā
(When) the woman came out and opened the door, the carpenter bowed and greeted (her). (Narang, Readings)

## 1113 jab sē, jab tak

The postpositions see and tak may be added to jab to express duration.
jah see expresses the duration or extent of time from a specific point ('since').

jab sē hämid sahar gayā, tab sē naukarĩ ḍūrụ rahā hai Since Hamid went to the city, (he) has been looking for employment.

The correlative phrase tah see may be omitted, but the sentence is less idiomatic. In that case a pronoun introduces the correlative clause.
jab sẽ hāmid sahar gayā, vo naukarĩ ḍūựd rahā hai
Ever since Hamid went to the city, he has been looking for employment.

jab sē mērā bêtạ calã gayā, maim ghar mēm̉ akēlī hūm்
Since my son left, I am alone in the house.
jab tak expresses the duration or extent of time till a specific point ('as long as'). The correlative phrase is usually omitted.

[^24]
## 1114 jab tak + negative, 'until', 'unless'

jab tak + negative, 'until', 'unless' introduces a relative subordinate clause. The negative is not translated in English. The verb in the relative phrase normally matches the tense of the verb in the correlative phrase, but may be subjunctive if the correlative verb is in a non-perfective tense.
jab tak hămid kō naukarī nahīm (na) milē gī vo đhhüṃdtā rahĕ gă
Until Hamid gets employment, he will keep looking.
(As long as Hamid does not get work, he will keep looking.)
جب تאى تم بدد نـ كرو بيي يمكام كيسـ كر سكتا بول ؟
jab takturn madad na karō, maim ye kām kaisē kar saktā hūṁ?
Unless you help, how can I do this job?

## 1115 jab ke, 'while'

Followed by the conjunction ke, jab expresses simultaneity ('while'). Here jab has no relative function; jab ke is a coordinating conjunction.

sādī mēm tājō dhōlak bajātī thī jab ke aurtēm gātí thīm
In the wedding, Tajo played the drum while the women sang.

## 1116 jis vaqt

Clauses introduced by jis vaqt ... (us vaqt) locate the subjects of the relative and correlative clauses at precisely the same time.

jis vaqt cōrī kā pata calā, us vaqt cōr bhāg cukā thā
At the time the theft was discovered, the thief had (already) fled.

## RELATIVE ADVERBS OF MANNER

Although one might expect relative adverbs of manner to express symmetry of manner, only jis tarah ... us tarah clearly shows this. The other relative adverbs of manner, jaisē and jüm, may show similarity ('as', 'like'), but often they function as simple adverbs of manner or even as conjunctions.

## 1117 jaisē

The oblique case of jaisā, jaisē, is used alone, without the correlative (vaisā), meaning 'like', 'as'.

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { - جيس } \\
& \text { jaisē āp nē kahā, hamēm is kām kō pūrā kamā hai } \\
& \text { As you said, we must complete this work. }
\end{aligned}
$$

Used adverbially, with the meaning 'as if', 'as though', a correlative is possible, but here it is not the 'far' vaisā, but the 'near' aisā. Here, jaisē functions as a conjunction and not as a relative word.

vo (aisē) cilläyā, jaisē kōi usē qatl kar rahā hai
He shouted as though someone were killing him.
Compare
وه ايسح چجلّاياك ك كوئى أُس قتل كر ربا بـ - vo aisē cillāyā, ke kōĩ usē qatl kar rahā hai He shouted as though someone were killing him.

## 1118 jaisē hī

jaisē hï may be used (a) as a relative adverb, meaning 'exactly as', or (b) as a conjunction, meaning 'as soon as'. As a relative adverb, it takes the correlative vaisē $\mathrm{h} \overline{\mathrm{i}}$ As a conjunction, it occurs without the correlative.

jamil jaisë hī kahēñ gē, tumhëm vaisē hỉ ka
You are to do (it) exactly as Jamil tells you.

jaisë hī din niklā, ghọṛē saféd cūhiyōm mēṅ badal gaē
As soon as the sun rose, the horses changed into white mice.

## 1119 jis tarah

Clauses introduced by jis tarah ... (us tarah) show actions or states in the relative and correlative clauses which happen in the same manner (symmetry of manner). The correlative word is often followed by the emphatic particle hï.

اُستاد جس طرح سبق پرُهتا تها ، طالب علم اُسى طرَ دوبراتِ تهـ -
ustād jis tarah sabaq paṛhtã thā, tälib ilm usï tarah dohräte thē
The pupils were repeating the lesson exactly as the teacher recited it.

## 1120 jū̀m

jüm occuring by itself is obsolete. It occurs followed by hī, and in compounds (jümí tyüm̀, jūù jūùm, jüm k kā tyū̀ù). The 'equivalent' force of these compounds is rather weak. The following examples illustrate the meanings of individual compounds.
جيول بى رشيده وبال يههنجى وه فوت بو گيا -
jyūm hī raŜida vahām̉ pahumicī vo faut hō gayā
As soon as Rashida reached there he passed away.

- مسي نخ أنك
maim nē un kē alfāz jürn kē tyū̀m likh liyē
I wrote down his words verbatim (just as they were spoken).

 Somehow or another I got the train ticket.
jūm jüun collocates with the progressive imperfective participle $+\mathrm{jānä}$ construction (§627):
جول جول گهركَ قريب آتا گيا ، نيرا انديشـ بُّهتا گيا -

The closer (more close) I came to home, the more my anxiety grew.


## INDEFINITE COMPOUNDS AND REPEATED RELATIVES

1121 Relative words followed by indefinite words, '-ever'
The relative words jō, jahăm and jab may be followed by their indefinite counterparts. The indefinite word adds the meaning '-ever'. These indefinite compounds are similar in meaning to relative words followed by bhī (\$1122).

## jō kōi, 'whoever', 'anyone who'

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { jō kōī nēk kām karē gā, phal pāē gā }
\end{aligned}
$$

Whoever does good deeds will reap the reward.
جو كوئى جلدى جانا چابيه أُسح اجازت لينى
jō kōī jaldī jānā cāhē, usē ijāzat lēnī parēe gī
Anyone who wants to leave early must get permission.

jis kisī kē păs daftar kī cäbī hō, usē vāpas kar dēnī cāhiề
Whoever may have a key to the office, (he) should return it.
Modifying a noun, jō kōī means 'whatever', 'whichever'.
جو كوئى تجويز بيي ييش كرتا بول ؛ وه اعتراض كرتى بي -
jō kō̄ tajviz maim pēs kartā hüm̉, vo etiräz kartí hai
Whatever suggestion I make, she raises an objection.

## jō kuch, 'whatever'


jō kuch maimin kartā hūm̀, vo etirâz kartỉ hai
Whatever I do, she raises an objection.
jahăm̀n kahïm̀, 'wherever', 'everywhere'
جها كهيي بهم ز> ديكها برف بیى برف دكهائى دى -
jahāṁ kahïm̀ ham nē dēkhā baraf hì baraf dikhāi dī
Everywhere we looked, nothing but snow could be seen.

## jab kabhi, 'whenever'

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { jab kabhī vo yahämin ātă hai, vo hamārē pās rahtā hai } \\
& \text { Whenever he comes here he stays with us. }
\end{aligned}
$$

1122 Relative words followed by bhī, '-ever'
When followed by bhī, the relative words $\mathbf{j o ̄}$, jahām, jab and jaisā, acquire indefinite meanings: 'whoever', 'wherever', 'no matter where', 'whenever', 'no
matter when', 'however'. These phrases are similar to compounds of relative words followed by indefinite words ( $\$ 1121$ ), but are slightly more emphatic.
جو بهى نيكل كام كر, گا پهل پائر گا -
jō bhī nēk kām karē gā, phal pāē gā
Whoever does good deeds will reap the reward.
تم جهان بهى جاؤ گا كامياب بو گ ا
tum jahām bhījāō gē kāmyāb hō gē
Wherever you go you will be successful.
جب بهى مين وبان جاتا بول ؛ دودهـ نهيه هلتا -
jab bhī maiṃ vahäm jătā hūm̀, dūdh nahīm miltā
No matter when I go there, milk is not available.
جيسع بهى (جيسا بهى) آپ چإيس كر سكت بیی -
jaisē bhī (jaisā bhī) àp cāhêḿ, kar saktē haim
You can do it however you wish.

## 1123 Repeated relative words

Relative pronouns and adverbs may be repeated. The repetition has distributive force, and is in some cases similar to the use of indcfinite compounds (\$1121).

جو جو عجائب گهر كى سير كرنا جاني ، إنّا نام لكهوا ديى -
jō jō ajāib ghar k̄̄ sair karnā cähēm, apnā nām likhvā dẹ̄̀
Those who wish to tour the museum, please sign up (get your name written).
Compare
Anyone who wishes to tour the museum ...

أُس نغ جس جس هلـى كا سفركيا ، وبال كا قوتى لباس جـم كر ليا -
us nē jis jis mulk kā safar kiyā, vahām̉ kā qaumī libăs jamă kar liyā
He collected the national dress from each country to which he travelled.
جهان جهان ديكها گلاب بی گلاب ته -
jahăm̉ jahāám dēkhā gulāb hī gulāb thē
Wherever (we) looked, there was nothing but roses.

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { جو كوئى عجائب گهر كی سير كرنا چانبر ... } \\
& \text { jō kōī ajāib ghar kī sair karnâ cãhēm ... }
\end{aligned}
$$

## 12 PARTICLES, INTERJECTIONS

 AND CONJUNCTIONS
## PARTICLES

## 1201 The contrastive emphatic particle to

In main clauses, tö emphasizes the preceding noun or verb and contrasts it with something else.

> وه أُردو پرُهر گا ـ
vo urdū paṛhē gā
He will study Urdu. (simple statement)
وه تو أردو يرّهر گا ـ
vo tō urdü paṛhē gā
He will study Urdu. (Contrast: the other students may not.)
وه أُردو تو ليُهه كا ـا
vo urdū tō parhē gà
He will study Urdu. (Contrast: he may not study other subjects.)

vo urdū parhē gā tō lēkin imtihān nahīm dè gã
He will study Urdu, of course, but he won't take the examination.
Sometimes the use of tō in main clauses is a prompt for confirmation.

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { آي إپّه تو بي ؟ } \\
& \text { āp acchē tō haim? } \\
& \text { You are well, I presume? }
\end{aligned}
$$

## 1202 tō introducing result clauses in conditional sentences

tō introduces the result clause of conditional sentences (see §609). agar, 'if' may be omitted in the condition clause, but tō only rarely, so that many conditional sentences are shown not by agar, but by tō in the result clause.

اكر فرصت سلى تو (مبي) كل آت
agar fursat milī tō (maim) kal āp kē sāth jāūm gā
If I get free time, (I) will go with you tomorrow.
كل فرصت سلى تو (ديس) آپ كَ ساته جاؤن گا -
kal fursat milī tō (maim) āp kē sāth jāū̀m gā
If I get free time tomorrow, (I) will go with you.
فرصت دلنتى تو جاتا ـ
fursat miltī tō jātā
If I had free time, (I) would go.

## 1203 nahīm tō

The phrase nahīm tō, 'otherwise', links a condition clause consisting of an injunction, and a result clause describing the consequences of failure to obey it.

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { parthō, nahīm tō nākām hō jāō gē! } \\
& \text { Study, otherwise you will fail! }
\end{aligned}
$$

to is sometimes omitted:
!
cup rahō, nahìm mâr khāō gè!
Keep quiet, or you will get a beating!

## 1204 tō introducing correlative clauses

tō may introduce the correlative clause in relative sentences beginning with jab. See §1112.

1205 The exclusive emphatic particle hir
hī emphasizes the preceding word and excludes something else (which may not be expressed).

## احمد قلعم ديكهنا چابتّا تها -

ahmad qila dēkhnā cāhtā thā
Ahmad wanted to see the fort. (simple statement)
 ahmad hī qila dēkhnā cāhtā thā, ham tō hōṭal vāpas ānā cähtē thē
It is Ahmad who wanted to see the fort; we wanted to return to the hotel.
احمد قلع بیى ديكهنا چابتا تها ، بادشابیى سسجد نهيپ -
ahmad qila hī dēkhnā cähtā thā, bādsähī masjid nahūrin
Ahmad wanted to see the fort, not the royal mosque.

1206 Sequences of nouns or pronouns + postpositions + hì
If hi is added to a noun or pronoun which is followed by a postposition, hi usually follows the postposition, but may separate the noun/pronoun and the postposition. This is to some extent a matter of personal style.

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { احمد ن نی بم كو روك ركها - } \\
& \text { ahmad nē hī ham kō rōkē rakhā } \\
& \text { It is Ahmad who delayed us. }
\end{aligned}
$$

احمد بى نغ بم كمو روك ركها ahmad hī nē ham kō rōkē rakhā It is Ahmad who delayed us.

The pronouns maim and $\overline{\mathrm{u}}$ (which do not take the oblique case before nē) may not be separated from nē by hī.

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { - ميي ن بیى يم كام كيا - } \\
& \text { maim nē hī ye kả̀m kiyā } \\
& \text { I'm the one who did this work }
\end{aligned}
$$

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { تون نـي بيرى مدد كى - } \\
& \text { tū nē hìmērī madad ki }
\end{aligned}
$$

You are the one who helped me.

The pronouns ăp, tum and ham may be separated from në by hï. When tum and ham are oblique, it is preferable howevcr to use the suffixal form of hi ( $\$ 1207$ ).

بهين نخ دروازه بندكيا -
hamīm̀ nē darvāza band kiyā
Weclosed the door (preferred).

Also: - ham hī nē̃ darvāza band kiyā We closed the door.

## 1207 hĩ occurring as a suffix

hī, or its variant forms $\overline{\mathbf{i}} \sim(\mathbf{h}) \overline{\mathrm{i}} \dot{\mathrm{m}}$, may occur as a suffix with:
(a) the oblique forms of all the pronouns except äp;
(b) the nominative forms of vo and ye;
(c) the adverbs of time ab, tab, kab and jab;
(d) the adverbs of place yahämi, vahām, kahäm and jahāñ.

These bound constructions may not be separated by postpositions. Table 27, p. 213 shows the suffixing of $\mathbf{h i}(\sim \overline{\mathbf{i}} \sim-(\mathbf{h}) \dot{\mathbf{i n}})$ to certain personal pronouns.

Table 28, p. 214 shows the suffixing of hir to certain adverbs. Note that when $\mathrm{h} \overline{\mathrm{i}}$ is suffixed to the interrogative adverbs kab and kahām, it makes indefinites.

Table 27: Personal pronouns + bound forms of hī

|  | Nominative + hī |  | Oblique + hī |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Singular |  |  |  |  |
| 1st person | مين بى ) | maim hī, l) | - | mujhī |
| 2nd person | تو بى ) | tâ hî, you) | تجهى | tujhì |
| 3 rd person | وبى | vahī, he, she, it | اسىى | usī |
|  | يهى | yahī, he, she, it | إسى | isis |
| Plural |  |  |  |  |
| 1st person | "هم بی ) | ham hī, we) | بتمين | hamīm |
| 2nd person | تم بیى ) | tum hī, you) | تمهيس ~ تمهيט | tumhīn |
|  | آپ | àp hī, you) | آپ بی ) | āp hi) |
| 3rd person | وبّى | vahī, they | أُنهي ~ أُنهي | unhī̀m |
|  | يههى | yahī, they | إنهيي ~ إنهين | inhī̀m |

(Items shown in parentheses: hi does not occur as a suffix with this pronoun,)

## Examples

بين بی فيصلا كرون گا -
maimì hì faisalà karūḿn gā
I'm the one who will make the decision.

- تجهىى كو نيصلر كرنا بي -
mujhī kō faisalā karnā hai
I'm the one who has to make the decision.

mujhí par ye zimmẽdāri hai
This is $m y$ responsibility (lit. the responsibility is on me).

unhīn kō mānnā parẹē gā
They must comply.
آپ بیى كی حفاظت كى بات بي -
äp hi kīhifãzat kī bāt hai
It is a matter of your safety.

Also: $\quad$ آپ كى بی حفاظت كی بات تي
āp kī hī hifâzat k̄̄ bāt bai
It is a matter of your safety.
However, if the alternate forms of $\mathbf{k o}(\$ 210)$ are used, hī occurs as a separate word, not as a suffix.

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { mujhē } h i ̄ \text { ye faisalā karnā bai } \\
& \text { I have to make this decision. }
\end{aligned}
$$

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { unhēm̀ hĭ mānnã parẹe gà } \\
& \text { They must comply. }
\end{aligned}
$$

Table 28: Adverbs + bound forms of hī

| ab, now | تـب <br> tab, then | kab, when | jab, when |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| ابهـ <br> abhĭ, right now | تـهـى <br> tabhî, just then | ك. kabhĩ, ever | جبهي <br> jabhī, as soon as |
| يهال <br> yahāmi, here | وبال vahām̀, there | كهان kahäm, where | جهاט <br> jahām, where |
| يهيو <br> yahīm <br> right here | وبيي <br> vahim, <br> right there | كrهبی kahïrn, somewhere | جهييى <br> (jahinin, <br> in the very place <br> where (obsolete) |

## Examples


kyäa äp nè kabhī ūñṭ par savāri kī?
Have you ever ridden on a camel?
كهيي ايكى سون
kahīm ëk sōnè kā mahal hai
Somewhere there is a golden palace.

āp kī ainak vahìm mēzz par rakhī bai
Your glasses are (placed) right there on the table.

1211 Emphatic and concessive phrases ending in bhī
bhï may follow phir, 'then'; aur, 'and'; tō ( $\$ 1201$ ) and par, 'on'.

## phir bhī, 'even so'

غريبى سخت تهى ‘ پهر بهى وه هايوس نهیي بوا -
үarīī saxt thī, phir bhī vo māyūs nahīñ hūā
The poverty was extreme, even so he didn't despair.

## aur bhī

Qualifying a noun, aur bhī means 'even more'.

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { اور بهى نتصان nuqsān } \\
& \text { aur bhin nuqs damage } \\
& \text { even more }
\end{aligned}
$$

Qualifying an adjective, aur bhī means 'even ... -er', 'even more'.
اور بهى سخت نتصان
aur bhï saxt nuqsän
even more severe damage
tō bhī shows contrast and means 'still', 'nevertheless'. It is used like a coordinating conjunction, similar to phir bhi.

درد بهتت تها تو بهى وه نهيي رويا -
dard bahut thă tō bhi vo nahïm rōyā
The pain was severe, nevertheless he didn't cry.

## 1212 hī nahīm ... bhīi in parallel clauses

Parallel clauses with hī nahïm in the first clause and bhī in the second clause express an augmentation of the idea in the first clause: 'not only ... but'.

أس نخ خط بیى نهيي بهيجا ، فون بهى كيا -

He not only sent a letter, but called as well.

## 1213 Oblique infinitive + par bhī, 'despite'

When bhī follows a phrase consisting of oblique infintive + par it shows strong contrast and means 'even after', 'despite’.

paisē dēnē par bhĩ yahâmí bijlī nahīm miltio
Despite paying money, (we) don't get electricity here.

## 1214 Indefinite pronouns + bhī, 'at all'

bhī is used as an emphatic particle after the indefinite pronouns kōi and kuch, most commonly in negative sentences.

## $k \bar{i} i \quad b h i, ~ ' a n y o n e ~ a t ~ a l l ' ~ ' ~$

يهال كوئى بهى نهيّي آتا -
yahām̉ kō̄ bhī nahīñ ãtā
No one at all comes here.

## kuch bhi, 'anything at all'

| كr* |  |
| :---: | :---: |
| kuch bhĭ hō | yahăñ kuch bhī nahī̀m miltā |
| Come what may. | Nothing at all is available here |

1215 Relative words followed by bhī, '-ever'
The relative words jō, jahām, jab and jaisā, followed by bhī, acquire the meanings 'whoever'; 'wherever', 'no matter where'; 'whenever', 'no matter when'; 'however'. See §1122.

## 1216 The adjectival particle sā ( $\sim$ sē $\sim$ sī)

Adjectival phrases are also formed by adding the particle sā to adjectives, nouns and pronouns. The particle sá is discussed in detail in $\S 310$.

## INTERJECTIONS

## 1217 Vocative interjections

Vocative interjections include $\overline{\mathbf{o}}$, ai, ' $o$ '; and arē (f. arī), 'oh', 'hey!'.

> او ركشع وال

Orickshaw driver!

arēāp yahäm, āp kab dehlī āê?
Oh, you (are) here! When did you come to Delhi?

## 1218 Free interjections

Free interjections may stand alone as a sentence, or introduce a sentence. A list of the more common includes vāh and sābās 'bravo', which express applause; ö hō 'oh no!', $\overline{\mathbf{u}}$ 'heaven forbid (only in women's speech)' and hāe 'alas'.

```
واه واه آپ غ تو كسال كر ديا !
vāh vāh, āp nē tō kamāl kar diyā!
Bravo, you have worked a miracle
```

او بو بيى بئوا بهول گيا !
$\bar{o} h \bar{o}$, maim bațvà bhūl gayā!
Oh no, (I) forgot (my) wallet!
بأُ ! اب دادى نهيّ ريّس !
hāā! ab dādī nahïm rahīm!
Alas! Grandmother is no more!
Urdu also has many free interjections with religious content, such as insäallah. 'if God wills' and bismillah, 'in the name of God'. See Chapter 16.

## LEADERS AND TAGS

Leaders and tags provide clues about the speaker's mood or intent. Leaders introduce sentences, and are often secondary meanings of common words. They include kyōm 'well', kyōm na 'how about...', and acchā 'oh', 'well'). Tags conclude a sentence and comment on it. Two common tags are sahī and nā.

## 1219 The leaders kyōm and kyōm na

The basic meaning of kyōm is 'why?'. As a leader, it asks for the other person's reaction to an idea

kyōm $\dot{m}$ bētị! tū hamärḕ sâth dāvat mēm jānā pasand karē gī?
Well, daughter! Would you like to go to the party with us?

The basic meaning of kyōm na is 'why not?'. As a leader, it offers a suggestion.

1220 acchā introducing sentences
The basic meaning of acchā is 'good'. As a leader, it expresses surprise and possibly reproof.

acchå āp yahāñ baiṭhē sō rahē haim! (parhnā cähiē thā)
Oh! You're sitting here asleep! ((You) should have studied.)

acchā acchå tō āj āp ki sälgirah hai! (batānā cāhiē thā)
Well well! Today is your birthday! ((You) should have told (me).)

## 1221 The concessive tag sahi

sahī, 'very well', 'all right'(to be distinguished from sahī, 'right', 'rrue') is used predicatively and concedes the statement preceding it. In translation the whole sentence must be taken into account.

```
إيسا بیى سهى - 
aisā hì sahi
```

All right, let it be.
-جيسا تم پابيو ويسا سسهى -
jaisā tum cähō vaisă sahī
Very well, as you wish.

بسرى وحشت تيرى شیهرت سی سهیى
isq mujh kŏ nahūm vahsat hī sahī
mērì vahsat terir sohrat hì sahì
All right, I am not merely in love, but in a wild frenzy,
At least concede that you owe your fame to my frenzy (Ghäiib)
sahī may be added to tō

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { وه آّا كا تو سهيى - } \\
& \text { vo āē gà tō sahī } \\
& \text { He's coming all right (but I don't know when) }
\end{aligned}
$$

## 1222 The rhetorical tag $\mathbf{n a}$

## The tag na has two functions.

At the end of a statement, it prompts for a reply:

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { يم داستان دلچֶسپ پی نا ! } \\
& \text { ye dāstän dilcasp hai nā! } \\
& \text { آپ آ ربح بي نا ـا } \\
& \text { 't it! āpā rahē haim nā }
\end{aligned}
$$

a makes courteous questions from courteous formal requests ending in gà:

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { Please take tea. } \\
& \text { cāē pījiê gā nă } \\
& \text { Would you please take tea? }
\end{aligned}
$$

Used at the end of a request, it makes it more insistent:

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { بها رـا كهر تشريف لائيه نا ! } \\
& \text { hamărē ghar taśrīf lāiyē nă! } \\
& \text { Please do come to our house! } \\
& \text { ييُّهو نا ! كيول إتنى جلدى جا رير بو ؟ } \\
& \text { baithō nā! kyōm itnī jaldī jā rahē hō? } \\
& \text { Sit down! Why are you leaving so soon? }
\end{aligned}
$$

In requests, nā usually corresponds to the tum-level of request forms. But see he first sentence in the preceding set, where the formal-polite tasiff makes the request respectful, while retaining some of the informality of nä

## CONJUNCTIONS

## 1223 Coordinating conjunctions

Coordinating conjunctions link two words, two phrases or two clauses of equal weight in the sentence.
aur, 'and'

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { دين اور آبی } \\
& \text { maim aurāp } \\
& \text { I and you }
\end{aligned}
$$

ham nē cāē pī aur pakōrēe khāē
We drank tea and ate fritters.
aur may also be used like an adjective to qualify a noun, meaning 'other', 'more'. It often occurs in a phrase with kuch, 'some'.

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { اور چائ夫 ذالئ, - } \\
& \text { aur cāē dăliè } \\
& \text { Please pour more tea. }
\end{aligned}
$$



```
kuch aur kaprä dikhäiyẽ
Please show me some more cloth.
```


## 

## aur kuch kap̣ā dikhäiyē

Please show me some other cloth.
The noun may be omitted, leaving aur to stand as the direct object.
اور لاؤل ، ييگم صاحبر ؟
aur lāūm̀, bēgam sāhiba?
Shall I bring more, ma'am?
aur may be used like an adverb to qualify an adjective.
اور إِّهاكِئا
auracchā kaprā
even better cloth
yā, 'or'
آپ چائُ پيئيט ₹ ، ياكانى ؟
āp cāē piè̀m gē, yā kâfi?
Will you drink tea or coffee?
magar, lēkin, 'but'
-
mainim kal āüm gā magar (lēkin) jumē kō nahïm ā saktā
I'll come tomorrow, butI can't come Friday.

## balke, 'rather', 'on the contrary'

balke introduces a clause which contrasts with a preceding negative clause.

vo sust nahīm balke bahut mehnatī hai
He is not lazy, on the contrary he is very hard-working.
jab ke, 'while', 'when', 'since'

> sādī mềm tājō dhōlak bajātī thī jab ke aurtēm̀ gātí thỉm
> In the wedding, Tajo played the drum while the women sang.

> jab ke tujh hin nahīm kōī maujüd
> phir ye hangăma ai xudā kyā hai
> Whennobody is present except You
> Then what is this fuss all about, O God (Ghälib)

## jaisē hī and jab sē

The relative words jaisā and jab are used in phrases that are translated by English conjunctions. See §1118 and §1115.

1224 Correlative conjunctions
Correlative conjunctions link two clauses of equal weight. The clauses may be inclusive, asserting two things simultaneously (the 'both ... and' type); or they may be exclusive, presenting two alternatives (the 'either ... or' type).

## Inclusive

bhì ... hhī, 'both ... and' links two clauses, usually with omission of the verb in the second clause.

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { maim bhījāūù gā aur āp bhī (jāēǹ gē) } \\
& \text { Both I and you will go. } \\
& \text { خال صاحب سخخى بهى ريس اور بههمان نواز بهى - } \\
& \text { xăṃ sãhib saxī bhī hairn aur mehmān navăz bhĭ } \\
& \mathrm{Mr} \text {. Khan is both generous and hospitable. }
\end{aligned}
$$

## Exclusive

yä ... yă means 'either ... or', 'whether ... or'; na ... na, means 'neither ... nor'. They link two clauses, usually with omission of the verb in the second clause.

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { maim yā daftar mēṃ hū̀n gā yă jalsē mēm } \\
& \text { I will either be in the office or in the meeting. }
\end{aligned}
$$

ي~ كام يا بيس كرون يا تم كرو ، كسیى كو تو كرنا
ye kām yā maim karūun yā tum karō, kisī kō tō karnā hai
Whether I do this work or you do, someone must do it.

vo na daftar mēm̈ hai, na jalsē mēm
He is neitherin the office nor in the meeting.
kyā ... kyā links two contrasting adjectives or nouns, which follow a main clause and explicate it.
موت ك سانـغ سب برابر بيس كيا دولتمند كيا غريب -
maut kē sāmnē sah haräbar haim, kyā daulatmand, kyä үaríb
In the face of death all are equal, whether rich or poor.

## 1225 Causal conjunctions

## kyōrinke, 'because'

kyörmke introduces the answer to a question.

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { كيون نهبي آن ؟-كيونكم بارش بو נبی تهى - } \\
& \text { kyōrn nahîm à â?-kyōmke bāris hō rahī thì } \\
& \text { Why didn't (you) come?-Because it was raining. }
\end{aligned}
$$

## cūmंke, 'since', 'because'

When cūme is used in the causal clause, is liee usually introduces the conclusive clause.
هونא, بارش بو ربى تهى ، إس لئخ وه نهيه آنَ -
cümike bāris hō rahī thī, is liē vo nahīmī āē
Since it's raining, they haven't come.
cunămice, 'so', 'therefore'

pul tựt gayā, cunāmice has nahümi ă saktī
The bridge broke, so the bus can't come.

## 1226 Concessive conjunctions

agarce, 'although', 'even though'
When agarce introduces concessive clauses, phir hhī, 'nevertheless' usually introduces the conclusion, but is often not translated. The concessive clause stands first in the sentence.

agarce sardī à gaī hai phir hhī pankhē cal rahē haim
Even though winter has come, the fans are still running.

## hālämike, 'even though'

hālämine introduces concessive clauses, which may stand first or second in the sentence.

hāläm̀ke sardī ā gaī hai phir bhī pankhē cal rahē haim
Even though winter has come, the fans are still running.

mujhē köt xarīdnā parā hāläñke vo xāsā maham̉gā thã
I had to buy a coat even though it was quite expensive.

## 1227 Subordinating conjunctions

Subordinating conjunctions introduce a subordinate clause, often with a subjunctive verb ( $\$ 608$ ), or the simple irrealis ( $\$ 622$ ).
agar, 'if'
agar introduces the condition clause of conditional sentences (described in detail under §609).

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { agar häris hūĩ, tō maim andar rahūm̉ gi } \\
& \text { If it rains, I'll stay inside. }
\end{aligned}
$$

tä ke, 'so that' and basartēke, 'provided that', 'on the condition that' These subordinating conjunctions take the subjunctive.

## تجارت كييجئع تاكم آسدنى بيى اضاف بو - <br> tijārat kijiē, tā ke āmdanī mēm izāfa hō

Work in commerce, so that (your) income increases.

marīz tandurust hō jāē gā basartêke vo ḍāktar kī salāh par amal karē
The patient will recover provided that he acts on the doctor's advice.

## jab tak + negative, 'until'

jab tak + negative introduces a relative subordinate clause. See §1114.
ke, that'
The conjunction ke has a variety of uses, and may introduce both subordinate and coordinate clauses.

## 1228 ke introducing subordinate clauses

In the following examples, ke introduces subordinate clauses which describe the consequence of circumstances set forth in the main clause. It is usually translated as 'that'.

us sē mêri jãn pehcān itnī nahìm ke us kã patā mẽrê pās hō
I am not so well acquainted with him that I would have his address.

## Subordinating expressions +ke

A number of phrases expressing possibility, necessity and wish end in ke and introduce clauses with subjunctive verbs. See $\S 608$ for additional examples.

mumkin hai ke usē xabar lagī hō
It's possible that he has got the news.

- حابئر ك وه دوا كهائر
cähiē ke vo davā khāē
He should (needs to) take medicine.
 zarūri hai ke vo davā khāē

It's necessary that he take medicine.

## 1229 ke introducing coordinate clauses

The conjunction ke may (a) replace other conjunctions, (b) introduce both coordinate and subordinate clauses.
ke may replace yā in questions offering an either ... or choice.
كيا ييئيט گַ ،كافى
kyă piēén gē, kāfi ke cāē?
What will you drink, coffee or tea?
ke may replace kyṑinke and tā ke, especially in poetry
بول كم سِّ زنده هـ اب تك
böl ke sac zinda hai ab tak
Speak, because truth still lives (Faiz)

## 1230 ke introducing quotations and reported facts

ke introduces clauses which function as direct objects of verbs like kahnā, 'to say', dēkhnā, 'to see', sunnā, 'to hear', pertinā, 'to read', sṑnnā, 'to think', samajhnā, 'to understand', etc.

Following kahnā, ke introduces a direct or indirect quotation. It is not translated.

## Direct quotation



He said, 'I will be in the park'.

Indirect quotation
أس نـ كساك
us nē kahā ke vo bā̄ mémé hō gà
He said he would be in the park.
Following dēkhnā, sunnā, paŗhnā, sōcnā, samajhnā, etc., ke introduces a coordinate clause which reports what is seen, heard, read, etc.

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { maim nē paب̣hā ke hāt cìt nākām hō gaī } \\
& \text { I read that the talks had failed. }
\end{aligned}
$$


maim nē sōcā ke āp in dinōm ilăhābād mếm haim
I thought (that) you were in Allahabad these days.
ke introduces a coordinate clause which explicates and shows the direct result of the idea expressed in the main clause.

pata nahīm us nē kyā kuch xarīdā ke ēk hhī rūpaya na hacă!
I can't imagine what all she bought, that not even a rupee is left!
ke introduces a juxtaposed coordinate clause which stands in strong contrast to the the main clause

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { يم كهال كى دوستى يّه كم بنـ بين دوست ناصح } \\
& \text { ye kahām ki dōstă hai ke bancé hàm dōst nāsih }
\end{aligned}
$$

What kind of friendship is this, that friends have become moralizers (Ghalib)
The juxtaposition of the two clauses may show identity of time. One may say that here ke replaces jab, and is preferably translated with some sort of time word.
ايكى كم پورا نههي بوتاك دوسرا آ پرُتا بـ -
êk kām pürā nahīm hōtā ke dūsrā ā partā hai
Before one job gets finished, a second turns up.

```
كُ
gaë đin ke tanhā thā maimí anujman mëḿ
Gone are the days whenI was alone in the assembly (Iqbal)
```

ke may replace jō, linking juxtaposed contrasting clauses. (See §1106-§1107 for other uses of $\mathbf{j} \overline{0}$.)

maim ke bēkār hümं, kis tarah sādī kā xarc uṭhă saküm் gā!
How can I pay the cost of a wedding when I'm unemployed!
Compare
 maim jö bēkār hūm̄, kis tarah s̄ādī kā xarc uṭhā sakūm̉ gā? How can I , who am unemployed, pay the cost of a wedding?

## NUMBERS

## 1301 Cardinal numbers

Table 29 (p. 230-1) shows the spellings of the cardinal numbers from 1 to 100. Table 30 p . 232) shows the numerals in the Urdu orthography. Note that a sequence of numerals is written from left to right (just as in European languages), even though Urdu text is written from right to left. Urdu numerals are used mainly for pagination and for writing numbers in Urdu texts. They are little used for calculation at present, and children are generally taught to do arithmetic using 'English' numbers (the so-called Arabic numbers) even in Urdu-medium schools.

The first syllables of the numbers in the vertical columns, while not identical, are often similar. Some students find it easier to learn the numbers by memorizing the vertical columns, rather than the horizontal ones.

The numbers ikāvan (51), ikāsī (81) and ikānavē (91) have the variant forms ikyāvan إكياون, ikyăsī

Not shown on the chart are:

| برار | hazär, 1,000 | one thousand |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 8ا | lâkh, 100,000 | one hundred thousand |
| كروز | karợ, 10,000,000 | ten million (a hundred lākh) |
| ارب | arb, 1,000,000,000 | a thousand million (a hundred karōr) |

Numbers are grammatically unmarked adjectives (§302), and precede the noun they qualify. They are treated as masculine, but do not inflect. Cardinal numbers in the 'teens' which end in -a (0) do not change when qualifying plural or oblique nouns. As is the case with other adjectives ending in chọ̣̄̆ hë̈ ( 0 ), the $h$ is not pronounced.

باره تميص ‘ خوده رونال اور پِند ره جوزُـه جرّاب

## bāra qamīs, cauda rūmāl, aur pandra jōrē jurrab

twelve shirts, fourteen handkerchiefs and fifteen pairs of socks
.
makān nambar dō sau pachattar
house number 275

jahäz mēm èk hazãr dō sau pacpan musäfir haim
There are 1,255 passengers on the ship.
پانجّ لاكه روئر كا نقصان
pāmic lākh rupaè kā nuqsān
a loss of five hundred thousand rupees

## 1302 Ordinal numbers

Ordinals are formed by adding the suffix -vām go the cardinal number, which makes it a regularly behaving marked adjective ( $\$ 301$ ). Ordinals agree with the noun they qualify in gender, number and case (see Table $9, \$ 303$ and Table 10, §304).

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { ساتوان باب } \\
& \text { ساتويى باب رين } \\
& \text { sãtväm் bāb, the seventh chapter (m. sg. nom.) } \\
& \text { sātvēm băb mēm, in the seventh chapter (m. sg. obl.) } \\
& \text { sätvïm jild, the seventh volume (f.) }
\end{aligned}
$$

There are six ordinal numbers which are formed irregularly. These are also marked adjectives.

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { pahlā (~ pahlē ~ pablī), first } \\
& \text { دوسر| - دوسرس - - دوسرى } \\
& \text { تيسرا - تيسرـه - تيسرى } \\
& \text { چوتها - چوته - چ چوتهی }
\end{aligned}
$$

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { نوان - نوي - نوين } \\
& \text { pahlā ( } \sim \text { pahlē } \sim \text { pablī), first } \\
& \text { dūsrä ( } \sim \text { dūsrë ~ dūsrī), second } \\
& \text { tīsrā ( } \sim \text { tissē } \sim \text { tisrī̀), third } \\
& \text { cauthă ( } \sim \text { cauthē } \sim \text { cauthī), fourth } \\
& \text { chaṭā ( chaṭ̂ē ~ cbaṭī), sixth } \\
& \text { naväm่ ( ~ navēm ~ navìm), ninth }
\end{aligned}
$$

The final unpronounced chōtī hē (0) in the cardinal numbers 11 through 17 changes to aspiration in the ordinals. The vowel-a-remains, but is pronounced very short, and may be elided in fast speech.

|  | gyärhaväm, eleventh |
| :---: | :---: |
| بارهوان | bärhavām, twelfth |
| تير | tērhavām, thirteenth |
|  | caudhavāṁ, fourteen |
|  | pandrahvām, fifteenth |
|  | äm, sixteenth |
| نترهوان | satrahyāmi seventee |

Table 29: Cardinal numbers from 1 to 100

| $\begin{aligned} & \text { ايك } 1 \text { ek } \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 2 \text { دو } \\ & \text { dō } \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 3 \text { تين } \\ & \text { تيin } \end{aligned}$ |  | $5 \text { بانگّ } 5$ pāñc |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| گياره 11 <br> gyāra | باره 12 <br> hāra | $\begin{aligned} & \text { تيره tēra } \\ & \text { ت } \end{aligned}$ | $\text { چوده } 14$ cauda | پپּدره 15 pandra |
| !إكيس 21 ikkis | بائيس 22 <br> hāis | تيئيس 23 <br> teìs | جويّس 24 cauhīs |  |
| $\text { إكتيس } 31 \text { iktis }$ | $\begin{aligned} & 32 \text { بتيس hattis } \\ & \end{aligned}$ | تينتيس 33 <br> taimtis | جونتيس 34 caumis | خينتيس 35 <br> paimtis |
| إكتاليس 41 iktälis | ياليس 42 hayalis | تينتاليس 43 taimtâlis | شواليس 44 cavālīs | رِينتاليس 45 <br> pairntālis |
| ! 51 ! ikävan | باون 52 hāvan | تريبن 53 tirēpan | حوّ cavvan |  pacpan |
| إكسثّ8 iksath | باسطُه 62 <br> bāsath | تريسظه 63 tirēsaṭh | چحونسیّه 64 caumsath | كينسشُه 65 paimsath |
| IT 71 <br> ikhattar | بهتر 72 <br> hahattar | تهتّر 73 tehattar | خوبثر 74 cauhattar | 75 7 pachattar |
|  | بياسىى 82 hayāsī | تراسى 83 tirāā̃ | *وراسی 84 caurāsī | پِجֶاسیى 85 pacāsī |
| 91 إكانوـ ikānavē | بانوـ 92 bānavē | ترانوـ 93 tirănavē | خورانوـ 94 caurānavē |  pacānavē |


| $\begin{aligned} & 6 \text { چֶ } \\ & \text { chē } \end{aligned}$ | سات 7 sāt | $\begin{aligned} & 8 \text { آ } \\ & \text { äth } \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 9 \text { nau } \\ & \text { na } \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & \text { دس das } \\ & \text { do } \end{aligned}$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $\begin{aligned} & 16 \text { سولم sōla } \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & \text { ستره satra } \\ & \text { ست } \end{aligned}$ | انُهاره 18 <br> athâra | $\begin{aligned} & \text { أْنَيس } 19 \\ & \text { unniss } \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 20 \text { يبس bis } \end{aligned}$ |
| $\text { הهبيسى } 26$ chabbīs | ستّائيس 27 sattāis | $\begin{aligned} & \text { انُّهائيس } 28 \text { athā1s } \\ & \text { ạhe } \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & \text { أُنتيس } 29 \\ & \text { untis } \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 30 \text { تيس tis } \end{aligned}$ |
| $\text { چهتتيس } 36$ <br> chattis | سينتيس 37 <br> saimṻs | $\begin{aligned} & 38 \text { ارُتيس } \\ & \text { artiss } \end{aligned}$ | أُنتاليس 39 untālis | جاليس 40 <br> cälis |
| جهياليس 46 cheyàlis | سينتاليس 47 <br> saimitālis | $\text { ارُتاليس } 48$ <br> artālīs | اُنحجاس 49 uncās |  pacās |
| 56 הپپ chappan | سمتّاون 57 sattāvan | انُهاون 58 athāvan | $\begin{aligned} & 59 \text { أنسبنه unsath } \\ & \text { un } \end{aligned}$ | سائه 60 săṭ |
| جهياسیُه 66 cheyāsath | سرسطُه 67 sarsaṭh | ازلزططه 68 arsath | أنهتّر 69 <br> unhattar | $\begin{aligned} & 70 \text { ستر } 70 \\ & \text { sattar } \end{aligned}$ |
| $\text { چקهنتر } 76$ <br> chehattar | ستشتر 77 satattar | أُهتر 78 athattar | $\begin{aligned} & 79 \text { أناسى unåsì } \\ & \text { un } \end{aligned}$ | $\text { السّى } 80$ |
| 78یی 86 cheyăsī | ستاسیى 87 satāsí | انُهاسى 88 aṭhāsī | نواسىى 89 navāsī | $\begin{aligned} & 90 \text { نوّ } \\ & \text { navvè } \end{aligned}$ |
| جهيانوـب 96 cheyānavē | ستأنوـ 97 satānavē | انُهانوس 98 aṭhānavē | ننانوـ 99 <br> ninānavē | $\begin{aligned} & \text { سو sau } \\ & \text { sau } \end{aligned}$ |

## Table 30: Numerals from 1 to 100

Note: In Urdu, composite numbers are written from left to right, as they are in English. But a sequence of numerals, as in counting, is written from left to right. Therefore the order of the numerals in this chart is the reverse of the proper order. This reverse order has been used so that the numerals will correspond to the numbers in the chart on the previous page.

| 1 | $r$ | $r$ | $\cdots$ | $\bigcirc$ | 7 | $<$ | $\wedge$ | 9 | 1. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 | 10 |
| 11 | ir | ir | 10 | 10 | 17 | $1<$ | 11 | 19 | $r$. |
| 11 | 12 | 13 | 14 | 15 | 16 | 17 | 18 | 19 | 20 |
| ri | rr | r | rr | ro | r9 | r 2 | T^ | rq | $r$. |
| 21 | 22 | 23 | 24 | 25 | 26 | 27 | 28 | 29 | 30 |
| r1 | rr | r | $r$ | ro | r9 | r | r^ | r9 | $\cdots$ |
| 31 | 32 | 33 | 34 | 35 | 36 | 37 | 38 | 39 | 40 |
| $\cdots$ | cr | M | - | ros | $\cdots$ | $\cdots$ | ~^ | $\cdots 9$ | $\Delta$. |
| 41 | 42 | 43 | 44 | 45 | 46 | 47 | 48 | 49 | 50 |
| 01 | or | or | or | $\Delta \Delta$ | 04 | 04 | -1 | 89 | 7. |
| 51 | 52 | 53 | 54 | 55 | 56 | 57 | 58 | 59 | 60 |
| 71 | 7 r | 7 | 7r | 78 | 77 | 16 | 11 | 79 | < |
| 61 | 62 | 63 | 64 | 65 | 66 | 67 | 68 | 69 | 70 |
| 41 | $4 r$ | 4 | 4 | $\angle 0$ | 47 | $<6$ | <^ | 49 | $\wedge$ - |
| 71 | 72 | 73 | 74 | 75 | 76 | 77 | 78 | 79 | 80 |
| 11 | Ar | Ar | Ar | $\wedge \Delta$ | 17 | ヘ | $\wedge \wedge$ | $\wedge 9$ | 9. |
| 81 | 82 | 83 | 84 | 85 | 86 | 87 | 88 | 89 | 90 |
| 91 | qr | 9 q | 9 Pr | 90 | 97 | 96 | $9 \wedge$ | 99 | 1.. |
| 91 | 92 | 93 | 94 | 95 | 96 | 97 | 98 | 99 | 100 |

> گيا رهوان دهينـ
gyärhavām̉ mahīna
the eleventh month

## چود هوي كا چاند

caudhavī̀ kā cäm̆ ${ }^{1}$
the moon of the fourteenth (i.e., full moon)
آِكيسوي صدى
ikkīsvimi sadī
the twenty-first century

## 1303 Fractions

The following fractions are used in referring to quantities, time (§1311) and money. All fractions lesser than dō, 'two' are grammatically singular.

## Singular fraction words (adjectives)

| پون ، پونا | paun, paunā, less one quarter |
| :---: | :---: |
| سوا | savā, plus one quarter |
| آدها ، آده | $\overline{\text { ädhā, âdh, one half }}$ |
| سإرّه | sạ̄thē, plus one half |
|  | dërh, one and a half |

## Singular fraction words (nouns)

| چوتهائى تهائي | rtcr |
| :---: | :---: |
|  | tihā, a third |

## Plural fraction word (adjective)

dhai, two and a half
paun and ādh occur before units of measure (including time words), paunā and $\bar{a}$ âhā are used with other nouns. paunā and ādhä are marked adjectives, and agree with the noun they qualify. The remaining fractions are invariable.

ädh ghanta, ādhä ghanta
half an hour
1 caudhavĭm agrees with the deleted word rät 'night', which is feminine. The reference is to the fourteenth night of the lunar calendar.

صرف پون گز كیثرًا چابئً -
sirf paun gaz kaprā cähiē
Only three quarters of a yard of cloth is needed.

- پون بجا بـ
paun bajā bai
It's 12:45 (1:00 less one quarter).

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { پونر دو } 5 \text { يلو چاول } \\
& \text { paunē dō kilō cāval } \\
& 1.75 \text { kilos of rice. }
\end{aligned}
$$

sārhē, 'plus one half'2 is used only with numbers (including time expressions), whereas àdhā, 'half', is used with nouns.

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { särhē chē gaz rēsamī kaprrā } \\
& \text { six and a half yards of silk cloth }
\end{aligned}
$$

| -آدهى | \$ |
| :---: | :---: |
| ādhï piyàlî câē | dēerh bajà hai |
| halfa (small) cup of tea | It's one-thirty. |
|  |  |
| dha ${ }^{\text {a }}$ baje haim | dërh man lakrị |
| It's two-thirty. | one and a half maunds of wood |

The use of fractions with numbers from 20 to 99 is rare, however they are used with larger numbers (sau, ' 100 ', hazzarr, '1,000', etc.), and the combination of fractions and the special words for multiples of thousands account for some typically South Asian expressions for large numbers.

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { سوا سو savā sau, } 125
\end{aligned}
$$

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { \$ dhāı läkh, 250,000 } \\
& \text { سوا دو لاكّه }
\end{aligned}
$$

Note that in the last example, the entire phrase savā dō qualifies lākh ( $2.25 \times$ $100,000=225,000$ ).

[^25]
## Other expressions for fractions

cauthā, 'a quarter' and tihāī, 'a third' may be used to express fractions. If used alone, they are nouns, but if used before another noun, they function as adjectives.

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { پانى كا تين چوتهائى حصّ كهيتول بين آتا ير - } \\
& \text { pānī kā tün cauthāa hissa khētōńn mēñ àtā hai }
\end{aligned}
$$

Three quarters (a three fourths part) of the water reaches the fields.


## sirf ēk tihāı piyālī dūdh dāànā

Put in only one third of a cup of milk.
Ordinal numbers can be used with hissa, 'part' to express one part of a whole.
پانى كا چوتها حصّ (ايك پپوتهائى) بخارات بنتا بی -
pãnī $k$ ā cauthā hissa ( $\sim \overline{\text { ēk }}$ cauthā̄) buxārāt bantā hai
One fourth part (~ a quarter) of the water evaporates (becomes steam).
baṭā (the masculine singular past participle of batnā, 'to be divided') is used to express remaining fractions.

دو بثا سات
dō baṭā sāt
two sevenths
batā is also used to express the English rendering of the slant ('over') in some street addresses.

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { ا'نهاسیى بُّا چار ، شير شاه رو\$ } \\
& \text { aṭhāsī batặ cär, Sêr sāh rọ̄ } \\
& 88 / 4 \text { (eighty-eight overfour), Sher Shah Road }
\end{aligned}
$$

1304 'Once', 'twice', etc.
'Once', 'twice', etc. is expressed by a phrase consisting of the number plus the nouns bār (f.), 'time', 'turn'; dafa (f.), 'time' or martaba (m.), 'time', 'occasion'. If the number is an ordinal, it agrees with the noun.

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { maim nē tīn băr kōsis kī, phir bhī thīk na hūā } \\
& \text { I tried three times (and) it still isn't okay. }
\end{aligned}
$$

وهول صبت دوسرى بار آيا -
vo kal subah (~ subh) düsrī bār āyä
He came yesterday morning for the second time.
اُن سح كئى دفعر پوجها -
un sē kaī dafa püchā
(I) asked them several times.

cauthī dafa pūchnē par javāb mil gayā
On asking the fourth time, (I) got an answer.
The number dō coalesces with a following bār to form a compound, dōbāra, 'again' (a synonym of phir).

This work hasn't been done right, please do it again.

1305 Multiplicatives ('twotold', 'double', etc.)
Multiplicatives are formed by adding the suffix gunā, which coalesces with the numbers dō, tin and cär to make compounds. gună inflects to agree with the noun it qualifies.

| و | dō | د'كنا | dug (u)nā | double, two times, twofold |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| تين | tin | ت | tig(u)nā | triple, three times, threefold |
| \% | cär |  | caugună | quadruple, four times, four |
| ن | pänc | , | pảme gunã | quintuple, five times, fivefo |
| 安 | chē | \% | chē gunã | sextuple, six times, sixfold |

ياركا دگنا آنه بوتا يّا -
cär kā dug(u)nā āṭh hōtã hai
Two times four is eight.

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { cär kà tig(u)nä bāra hōtă hai } \\
& \text { Three times four is twelve. }
\end{aligned}
$$

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { - آبپ } \\
& \text { āp kē paisē dug(u)nē hō jāèm gē āp kī daulat dug (u)nĭ hō jāē gi } \\
& \text { Your funds will be doubled. } \\
& \begin{array}{l}
\text { àp kī daulat dugg (u)nì hō jāe gì } \\
\text { Your wealth will be doubled. }
\end{array}
\end{aligned}
$$

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { يم كام ثُهيك نهيى بوا ، دوباره كيجئر } \\
& \text { ye kām thhỉk nahīm hūā, dōbāra kījiē }
\end{aligned}
$$

## 1306 Repeated numbers

Repetition of numbers expresses distributiveness

basēñ đō dō ghanṭē kē bād jātī haim
The buses go every two hours.

qatär mēm̀ khaṛè hō kar ēk ēk kar kēāiyē
Please form (stand in) a line and come one at a time.
Approximation is expressed with two even numbers in sequence. (There are several exceptions to this rule: the sequence chē āṭh does not occur; dö căr occurs, but means 'a few'; the odd number sequence pāmic sāt occurs, and is often shortened to pān sät.)

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { - دس باره آدمى دكان ديى تهـ } \\
& \text { das bāra ādmī dukān mēñ thē }
\end{aligned}
$$

There were about a dozen (ten-twelve) people in the shop.
kitnē lōg yahām rahtē haim̀?--pata nahīm, $p \bar{a} n$ sāt hṑm gē
How many people live here?-1 don't know, maybe half a dozen.
صرفـ دو چار آدمى حاضر تهـ -
sirf đō cār ădmĭ hăzir thē
Only a few people were present.
1307 Numbers with the oblique plural
Numbers may occur in the oblique plural to express totality or an indefinitely large amount ( $\$ 112$ ).

## CALENDAR AND CLOCK TIME

## 1308 Months

In both India and Pakistan, official business runs on Common Era (C.E.) time, using English months. However the Islamic Hijri calendar (A.H., 'Anno Hegirae'), which commenced in 622 C.E., is used to determine Muslim religious observances. Because the Hijrī calendar is lunar, the Hijri year is approximately eleven days shorter than the Common Era Year.
mahīna , 'month' may refer to both Common Era and Hijrī months. The names of the days of the Hijri months (which are all masculine gender) are:

| هسرم صفر | muharram safar |
| :---: | :---: |
| ربيع الاوّل | rabi-ul-avval |
| ربيع الثانى | rabī-us-sānī |
| جمادى الاوّل | jamādi-ul-avval |
| جمادى الثانى | jamādī-us-sânī |
| رجب | rajab |
| شعبان | Säbă |
| رسضان | ramzān |
| شوّال | Savvàl |
| ذى قعى لـده ه ذوالتعده | ziqqād |
| ذى الحجه | zil hij (< zil hijij) ${ }^{3}$ |

The names of the Common Era months are:

| جنورى | janvarí (f.) | January |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| فرورى | farvari (f.) | February |
| مارّرك | märe (m.) | March |
| ابيريل | aprail (m.) | April |
| بئى | maĭ(f.) | May |
| جون | jūn (m.) | June |
| جولانى | jūlà (f.) | July |
| اكّست | agast (m.) | August |
| ستّبر | sitambar (m.) | September |
| اكتوبر | aktūbar (m.) | October |
| نوهبر | navambar (m.) | November |
| دسمبر | disambar (m.) | December |

[^26]
## 1309 Days

kal has two meanings: 'tomorrow' with non-perfective tenses, and 'yesterday' with perfective tenses.

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { maim kal āyā aur kal phir jāūḿ gā } \\
& \text { I came yesterday and I will go again tomorrow. }
\end{aligned}
$$

parsöm means 'the day after tomorrow' with non-perfective tenses, and 'the day before yesterday' with perfective tenses.
ديي پرسول آيا اور پرسول پهر جاؤن گا ـ
maim parsōm ãyā aur parsōm̉ phir jãūùm gā
I came the day before yesterday and I will go again the day after tomorrow.
The names of the days of the week (hafta بفتش) are:

| اتوار | itvār (m.) | Sunday |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| پير | pir (m.) | Monday |
| سوّوار | sōmvār (m.) | Monday (less common than pir) |
| سنگّل | mangal (m.) | Tuesday |
| بلهه | budh (m.) | Wednesday |
| جـعرات | jumêrāt (f.) | Thursday (lit. Friday-eve) |
| جهrn | juma (m.) | Friday |
| بفنت ، بفتغ كا دن | hafta, haftê kā din | Saturday |

jumẽ kā din is also commonly used for 'Friday'. juma originally meant 'congregation (for prayers in the mosque)'.

The primary meaning of hafta is 'week', but has also come to be used for 'Saturday' (particularly in Pakistan). It is a shortened form of haftē kā din, 'the (last) day of the week'

When the days of the week are used as adverbs of time in sentences, they appear in the oblique case.

āj hafta (haftề kā din) bai
Today is Saturday.

haftē $k \bar{o}$ (haftē kē din kō) ham dāvat par jā rāhē haim
Saturday we are going to a party.

aglē pīrīid-ul-azhā hai
Next Monday is Eid-ul-Azha.

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { آگل } \\
& \text { aglē pīr āp hamärē ghar tasrif lăiyē } \\
& \text { Next Monday please come (honorific) to our house. }
\end{aligned}
$$

## 1310 Writing the date

Dates are written from right to left in the following order: day, month, year. The numerals for the date are followed by the sign, , and the year is written over the sign (san), which is followed by a small $s$ for Common Era dates ${ }^{4}$ and a small s (dō caśmī hē) for Hijrī̀ dates. The ordinal number (pahlī, 'first' (agreeing with tärix (f.), 'date')) is used for mentioning the first day of the month. Cardinal numbers are usually used in mentioning the other days, but ordinals may also be used.
-1 جن
pablī janvarí unnīs sau pacānavē
1st January 1995 (C.E.)

mail kī iktis tärix
the 31st of May
8 1994
iktīs maī unnīs sau satānavē
31st May 1997 (C.E.)

muharram kī dasvīim/muharram kī das tärix
the tenth of Muharram

äṭh rajab cauda sau aṭhăra
8 Rajab 1418 (A.H.)

[^27]The first day of a Hijrī month is referred to as چاند کی چههلى cämid kī pahlī, 'the first of the moon'. The Persian loanword yakum (f.) also means 'the first of the month'.
mērī tārix-e-padāis yakum mārc unnis sau säth hai
My date of birth is first March, 1960.

## 1311 Telling the time

## Divisions of the day

The day (din $د \mathrm{~J}$ ) is divided roughly into subah (~ subh) صبع , 'morning', dō pahr , دو , 'afternoon' and sām , 'evening'. Historically, a 24-hour period was divided into three-hour watches, or pahr $\underset{\sim}{ }$. According to this reckoning, dō pahr (watch two) means 'noon', and also the period from noon to 3 p.m. seh pahr $\quad$ (watch three) refers to the period from 3 p.m. to 6 . säm 'evening' begins at about 5 p.m., with fluctuations according to the season. rät , 'night' begins at about 9 p.m.
săm and răt are used in adverbial expressions of time with the postposition $k \bar{o}$ With subah, kō is optional, and with din, mērn is used.

وه شام كو (رات كم) آئ تا -
vo stäm kō (rät kō) āe gà
He will come in the evening (at night).
وه صبع (ك) آك گا
vo subah (~ subh) (kō) āē gā
He will come in the morning.
وه دن دين آئر أـا
vo din mēm āē gā
He will come during the day.

## Clock time

Clock time is expressed with the perfect participle of bajnā بجּنا, 'to strike', which agrees in number with the hour. Numbers which express time are treated as masculine nouns.

## Stating the time

When clock time is stated, it is expressed in a subject-predicate sentence, with the immediate past tense ( $\S 63 \mathrm{I}$ ) of bajnā The perfect participle baja is masculine, and agrees with the subject (the hour) in number and case.

إس وقت بيرى گهُّى سيى پون بجا بي -
is vaqt mērī gharī mēm paun bajā hai
Now it's a quarter to one by my watch.
ايكى بجا يـ ا
êk bajā hai
It's one o'clock (one has struck).
سوا ايك بجا بـ
savā ēk bajāhai
It's a quarter past one.
In the first example above, $\overline{\mathrm{k}}$ is the singular subject of bajā hai, which agrees with it. In the second example, paun is also singular. savā, in the third, does not inflect. (See $\S 1303$ for fractions.)
dērch is singular; plural numbers begin with dō, 'two':
اب اُيزُه بيجا بر -
ab dērlh bajä hai
Now it's onc-thirty.
دو بـجِ بي -
đô bajḕ haim
It's two o'clock (two have struck).
اب نهيكى سارُه
ab thīk särhē chē bajē haim
Now it's exactly six-thirty.

ham ädhē ghantệ mēm rāt kā khānā khāēm gē
We will eat dinner in half an hour.
In the second example above, dö is the plural subject of bajē haim, which is masculine plural. In the third and fourth examples, särhē is used with the number chē, 'six', to express 'six and a half'. But ādhā, 'half' is used with the noun ghanta, 'hour', to express 'half an hour'.

## Telling time by minutes

To express minutes after or before the hour, the phrases baj kar, 'having struck' and bajnē mēm, 'in striking' are used with the borrowed word minat, 'minute(s)'.

pänćc baj kar pandra minat
5:15; fifteen minutes past five

يانِّج بجنِ بيى دس بنـط
pānc bajnē̃ mëḿn das minat
4:50; ten minutes to five

## Using clock time adverbially

When time expressions are used as adverbs of time (qualifying an action or event), they appear in the oblique case. In the second example, ēk bajē is an adverbial phrase; baje is masculine oblique singular.

> ham das bajē subah (~ subh) cāē pitē haim
> We drink tea at ten o'clock in the morning.
-
däkiya din kē êk bajēătā hai
The postman comes at one o'clock in the afternoon.

maium sāt bajêesâm ghar pahumicūm gì
I will arrive home at seven o'clock in the evening.
No postposition is used when bajē is used in an adverbial expression of time.
وه دس بجا آمُ
vo das bajē àe gā
He will come at ten o'clock.

## Some idioms referring to divisions of the day

```
صبح سوير<<
subah savērēe
early in the morning
```


## بهت صبت

```
early in the morning
```


## bahut subah

```
very early in the morning (much morning)
```

[^28] together they mean 'early moming'.

|  | !إتا دن چرّهـ |
| :---: | :---: |
| pahr din caṛē | itnā din caṛhē |
| about 9 a.m. | so late |
| (one pahr of day having risen) | (so much day having risen) |
| پهر رات گك | آد هى |
| pahr rāt gaē | ādhī rāt |
| about 9 p.m. | midnight |
| (one pahr of night having passed) | (half night) |
| *هر | كـجّ رات زات |
| pahr rāt rahē | kuch rät rahē |
| about $3 \mathrm{a} . \mathrm{m}$. | very early in the morning |
| (one pahr of night having remained) | (some night having remained) |

## MONEY

1312 Contemporary currency
In hoth India and Pakistan, the rupee (rupiya روبيّ) is divided into 100 pice (paisa يبسM ). The word paisā can mean 'money' or a one-pice coin. Pluralized, it means 'funds', 'money in a physical sense'.

ãp kō kitnā paisā cähiè?
How much money do you need?

us nē paisē gin kar haṭvề mēm̉ dā̀lē
He counted the money and put it in the bag.
 us sē pahlē mujhē paisē tō hahut milĕ thē, magar rüpaya kahhī na milā thā Before that I had got many pice, but I had never got a rupee. (Rusvā, Umräō Jān $A d \bar{a})$

An English decimal point or a diagonal slant may be used to indicate the decimal point, although fractions of a rupee are usually rounded off.

```
0.90 ~ 90/0.
pacānvē rupaẽ, pacās paisē
Rs. 95.50
```


## 1313 Old currency

In older texts, references to the former system may be found, in which, a rupee consisted of 16 annas (ăna $\sim \tilde{i}$, ، i sg., ānē pl.); an anna consisted of 4 pice
 (half a rupee) may occasionally be heard.

Urdu developed in close contact with Persian, which was the language of administration and education during the period of Muslim rule in India. Even after Urdu began to replace Persian as the language of poetry in the eighteenth century, Persian retained its official status for another century, and remained a rich source of literary vocabulary in Urdu. Elements of Persian grammar have been borrowed along with the vocabulary, and a knowledge of them is essential for reading literary Urdu, particularly poetry.

This chapter presents an overview of the more important Persian elements from the perspective of the study of Urdu, but does not, of course, attempt to describe Persian grammar comprehensively

Noit: where meanings of the Persian loanwords have changed, the current Urdu meaning, rather than the original Persian one, is given. The Urdu pronunciation, rather than the Persian one, is also shown.

## THE ENCLITIC izāfat (1401)

izāfat 'increase', 'addition' is an enclitic short vowel, pronounced in Urdu as a shorte which joins two nouns or a noun and an adjective. It has two grammatical functions.

## Noun-izäfat-noun (pronoun)

In the first function, izăfat shows a possessive relationship in which the first noun (or pronoun) belongs to the second.

$$
\begin{aligned}
\text { حكوستٍ پانكستان } & \text { hukūmat-e-pākistān, The Government of Pakistan } \\
\text { جانِ } & \text { jān-e-man, my darling (soul/life of I) }
\end{aligned}
$$

This is the reverse of the possessive word-order in Urdu:

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { päkistān kī hukūmat, Pakistan's government } \\
& \text { ميرى جان } \\
& \text { mērī jān, my dear }
\end{aligned}
$$

Often the possessive construction with izāfat and the possessive with kā have different connotations. For example, hukūmat-e-päkistān is a proper noun: the Government of Pakistan in its official capacity; whereas pākistān kī hukümat is
common noun and refers to the sitting government at the time of speaking Similarly, jăn-e-man is used to address one's sweetheart, whereas mërí jān may be used to address any dear friend.

## Noun-izăfat-adjective

In the second function, izāfat shows that the noun is modified by the following adjective.

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { وزير اعظم } \quad \text { vazī-e-āzam, prime minister (lit. great minister) } \\
& \text { ديوآنِ عام } \\
& \text { ديوانِ خاص dīvān-e-xās, private hall of audience }
\end{aligned}
$$

Note: izāfat is mostly left unwritten in modern texts, especially since modern computer fonts often do not provide a systematic means of writing it. When written, it is written as follows:
(a) as subscript zēr (, ) when it follows $ى$ (chọ̄ịi yē) or any consonant,
(b) as ${ }_{\mathcal{L}}$ (hamza over barī yē) when it follows a word ending in the long vowels I (alif), or g (vā̄),
(c) as ${ }^{\wedge}$ (hamza over chōṭī hē) when it follows a final 。(chōṭị hē),
(d) as zero (it is neither written nor pronounced) when it follows a word ending in $\leftharpoonup$ (barị yē).
In the spoken language there is an increasing tendency to omit the izäfat in pronunciation, especially if a word ends in a single consonant following a short vowel: tallib ilm, 'student', for tälib-e-ilm; äxir kār, 'at last', for āxir-e-kār.
(a)
vādi-e-sindh
the Indus valley (lit. valley of Sindh)
(b) دريائع سنده
daryā-e-sindh
the Indus River (lit. river of Sindh/Indus)
(c) جذبئدل
jazba-e-dil
emotion of the heart
(d) المُ عانى
rāē-ālī
a high opinion

## WORD-FORMING AFFIXES

Persian has contributed many word-forming suffixes and prefixes to Urdu. The following are some of the most common affixes, including prepositions.
Note: Words with Persian suffixes will be found in dictionaries under the same entry as the word to which the suffix is added. Words and phrases beginning with prefixed prepositions must however be looked up under the preposition.

## 1402 Nominal suffixes

## Suffixes forming nouns

The abstract suffix -ī (alternating with -gi after words ending in -a 0 ) derives abstract nouns from nouns and adjectives. Compare English '-ness' and 'ship'.

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { گ, garm, hot (adj.) } \rightarrow \text { garmī, heat } \\
& \text { dōst, friend (noun) } \rightarrow \text { dōsti, friendship } \\
& \text { زنده } \leftarrow \text {;inda, alive (adj.) } \rightarrow \text { zindagi, life } \\
& \text { banda, slave (noun) } \rightarrow \text { bandagī, slavery }
\end{aligned}
$$

The suffixes -kār, -gār, -gar and -cil make agent nouns. The new noun shows a person who does, or is involved with, the old noun.

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { dast, hand } \rightarrow \text { dastkär, craftsman } \\
& \text { گناه } \\
& \text { جادو } \leftarrow \text { جادوكر } \\
& \text { gunāh, } \sin \rightarrow \text { gunãhgār, sinner } \\
& \text { افيم } \\
& \text { jādū, magic } \rightarrow \text { jādūgar, magician } \\
& \text { afìm, opium } \rightarrow \text { afirmci, opium addict }
\end{aligned}
$$

New nouns with the suffix -bān ~ -vān shows the 'keeper' of the old noun

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { mēz, table } \rightarrow \text { mëzbān, host } \\
& \text { نك }
\end{aligned}
$$

The suffixes -gāh, -ābād and -stān ~ -istān form nouns of location.

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { عيد } \leftarrow \quad \text { id, Eid festival } \rightarrow \text { idgäh, place for Eid prayers } \\
& \text { T } \quad \text { akbar, Akbar } \rightarrow \text { akbaräbād, city of } \text { Akbar }^{2} \\
& \text { ريگّ } \\
& \text { rēg, sand } \rightarrow \text { rēgistän, sandy desert }
\end{aligned}
$$

The suffix -zär derives new nouns which show a place characterized by the old noun.
گڭ

The diminutive suffixes -ca, -ica and -ak form diminutives of the old noun.

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { dast, hand } \rightarrow \text { dastak, knock on door }
\end{aligned}
$$

The suffix -dān $\sim$-dān̄̄ shows a container (the suffix should be distinguished from dān, present stem of dānestan, 'to know', as in säinsdān, 'scientist'). This suffix is added not only to Perso-Arabic words but also to indigenous Urdu words.

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { ن } \\
& \text { حائ } \\
& \text { cūhā, mouse } \rightarrow \text { cūhēdān, mouse trap } \\
& \text { cāē, tea } \rightarrow \text { cāēdān̄̄, teapot }
\end{aligned}
$$

## Suffixes forming both nouns and adjectives

Possession is shown by -dār, -āvar ~ -var, -yär ~ -yar and -mand. dār is the most productive in forming new derivations, and is suffixed not only to Perso-Arabic words but also to indigenous Urdu words and even English loanwords.

| ذ <br>  |
| :---: |
|  |  |
|  |
| لبنر |
| بوش |
| بوش |
| دولت $\leftarrow$ |

zimma, responsibility $\rightarrow$ zimmēdär, responsible samajh, understanding $\rightarrow$ samajhdār, sensible
tikat, stamp $\rightarrow$ ṭikaṭarar, ready-stamped (envelope)
hunar, skill $\rightarrow$ hunarvar, skillful
höś, senses $\rightarrow$ höšyăr, careful, vigilant
hō§, senses $\rightarrow$ hōsmand, sensible, intelligent
daulat, wealth $\rightarrow$ daulatmand, wealthy

## Suffixes forming adjectives

The adjectival suffix -i makes descriptive adjectives from nouns.

$$
\begin{aligned}
\text { یֶ } & \text { päkistān, Pakistan } \rightarrow \text { päkistānī, Pakistani } \\
\text {, } & \text { mehnat, effort } \rightarrow \text { mehnatī, hard-working }
\end{aligned}
$$

The suffix -a derives attributive adjectives from predicate adjectives (\$306).

$$
\text { maujūd, present } \rightarrow \text { maujüda, present }
$$

## Predicative adjective

جتج صاحب عدالت ميي موجود تهـ
jaj sähib adālat mēni maujūd thē
The judge was present in the court.

## Attributive adjective

موجوده حكوهت
maujūda hukūmat
the current (sitting) government
The suffix -āna derives adverbs and adjectives of quality from nouns and adjectives. Compare English '-ly'.

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { dōst, friend } \rightarrow \text { dōstāna, friendly } \\
& \text { ظ }
\end{aligned}
$$

The suffixes -nāk and -gin, 'full of' make new adjectives of quality from nouns. Compare English '-ous', '-ful'.

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { خطر } \leftarrow \text { خطرنآى } \quad \text { xatar, danger } \rightarrow \text { xatarnāk, dangerous } \\
& \text { Sarm, shame } \rightarrow \text { Sarmnāk, shameful } \\
& \text { Sarm, shame } \rightarrow \text { Sarmgin, bashful }
\end{aligned}
$$

## 1403 Prefixes

The negative particle nă-occurs as a prefix to nouns and Persian verb stems.

$$
\begin{array}{ll}
\text { نادان } & \text { nākām, unsuccessful (< kām, desire) } \\
\text { nād, ignorant, foolish (< dān < dānestan, to know) }
\end{array}
$$

ham- 'same' is productive as a prefix in Urdu.

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { hamzāt, of the same caste (< zāt, caste) } \\
& \text { بهم ذلاتبب ham mazhab, co-religionists (< mazhab, religion) }
\end{aligned}
$$

## 1404 Prepositions

Persian prepositions are usually used as prefixes in Urdu (the exceptions are az, bar and tā, which are less productive than the others). Most have their own entries in Urdu dictionaries.
az, 'from', 'of'; 'by (authorship)'
kam az kam, at least (< kam, less, few)
az xud, voluntarily (< xud, self)
az alläma iqbāl, by Allama Iqbal
ba, 'with', 'by'

| بخخير | baxair, in safety (< xair, good, goodness) |
| :--- | :--- |
| bزورr, bazol force (< zōr, power, force) |  |

bä, 'with', 'along with'

$$
\begin{array}{cl}
\text { بااصول } & \text { bāusül, principled (< usūl, principle) } \\
\text { bāadab, courteous (< adab, courtesy) }
\end{array}
$$

bar, 'on', 'over'

$$
\text { بر طرف كرنا } \quad \text { to dismiss (< bar taraf, aside < taraf, side, direction) }
$$

be, 'without'
bē is usually written as a separate word.

| بر شـ | bêsak, doubtless (< sak, doubt) |
| :---: | :---: |
| ب | bê had, extremely (< had, limit) |
|  | bē bas, helpless (< bas, control, power) |

dar, 'in'

> dar haqīqat, in fact (< haqīqat, fact, reality) darxāst, application (dar + xāst < xästan, to wish)
tā, 'up to'
تا حال tā hāl, hitherto (< hāl, state, present state)
ba, bā, bar and dar derive compound postpositions ( $\$ 531$ ).

| بطور | bataur, as, in the capacity (of) |
| ---: | :--- |
| bayair, without |  |
| بغير نسبت | banisbat, in comparison (with) |
| باوجودن | bāvujūd, in spite (of) |
| darmiyān, between |  |

## 1405 Plural suffixes

Persian distinguishes two numbers, singular and plural.
Nouns representing animate beings take the plural suffix -ān (often pronounced -ām in Urdu). In Persian, inanimate nouns take the plural suffix -hā, but in Urdu this suffix occurs only in a few set expressions.

| buzargăn, elders (< buzarg, elder) |  |
| :---: | :--- |
| بزرگان | tälibān, students (<tälib, seeker, student) |
| سالبان سال sālhā sāl, for years on end (< sāl, year) |  |

Animate nouns ending in a $\Delta$ change -ān to -găn.
numäindagān, representatives (< numāinda, representative)
Animate nouns ending in $-\bar{a} \mid$ change -ān to -yān.
گدايان gadäyăn, beggars ( < gadā, beggar)

Only words of Persian origin (or Arabic loanwords which have been assimilated into Persian) may take Persian plural suffixes. Some Persian loanwords in common use have both Persian and indigenous Urdu plural forms: numäindē < $\sim$ ~ numāindagān نمائندگان, 'representatives'; săhib صاهبر ~ sāhibān 'gentlemen'. In such cases, use of the Persian plural is usually typical of a formal or literary style.

Words ending in Persian plural suffixes do not take the Urdu oblique plural suffix in -ōrin. (sähibŏrṅ nē, but sāhibān nē, 'gentlemen' (subject of a perfective transitive verb)). However Persian plurals occur mostly in the nominative case

## VERB FORMS

## 1406 Present and past verb stems

The Persian verb forms which occur most commonly in Urdu are the present and past stems. Both are formed from the infinitive, which ends in -tan, -dan and -idan. The past stem is formed by dropping -an. The present stem of regular verbs is formed by dropping the full infinitive suffix.

| Infinitive | Meaning | Past stem | Present stem |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :---: |
| kustan | to kill | xuśst | xús |
| xōrdan | to eat | xōrd | xōr |
| fahmidan | to understand | fahmīd | fahm |

Irregularities in the formation of the present stem are common.

| dādan | to give | dād | dah |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| xāstan | to wish, want | xāst | xāh |
| dāstan | to have | dāst | dār |
| guzāStan | to pass (trans.) | guzāSt | guzār |
| sudan | to be, become | sud | sav, sau |
| būdan | to be | būd | bās |
| raftan | to go | raft | rav, rau |
| āmadan | to come | ämad | $\overline{\mathbf{a}}$ |
| yäftan | to obtain | yāft | yäb |

Past participles are formed by suffixing -a to past stems, and present participles by suffixing -inda, -ămin or -ā to present stems.

Occasionally a past stem occurs as an Urdu noun:

> Hisast, seat (past stem of nisastan, to sit)
> ITMad, arrival (past stem of ămadan, to come)

Both past and present stems occur in Urdu in borrowed compounds. Compounds with past participles are also frequent. In dictionaries, compounds are listed under the first element in the compound

## COMPOUNDS (1407)

Compounding is a very productive process in Persian. Compounds can be made with two independent words (such as nouns and adjectives), and also with independent words and verb stems, and with verb stems themselves. The compound
constitutes a single word in Urdu, although the elements are sometimes written with intervening spaces.

Adjective + noun
The elements are simply juxtaposed. When an adjective is compounded with a following noun, the result is an adjective meaning 'possessing the thing or idea expressed by the two words'

| 5 | kambaxt, unfortunate (kam, less + baxt, fortune) |
| :---: | :---: |
| وروت | xübsūrat, beautiful (xūb, good + sūrat, appearanc |
| خوشحال | xuShăl, prosperous (xus, happy + hāl, state) |
|  | ance) |
| ل |  |

## Noun + adjective

حقيقت پسند $\quad$ haqiqat pasand, realist (haqīqat, truth + pasand, liked)

## Noun + noun

The elements may joined with $\mathbf{0}$, 'and', or simply juxtaposed.

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { روز و شـب röz o Sab, around the clock (rōz, day + Sab, night) } \\
& \text { روز نان } \\
& \text { kارخان~ kārxāna, workshop, factory (kär, work + xăna, house) }
\end{aligned}
$$

## Compounds with present stems as the second element

Here the present stem acquires the sense of a present participle.
كاريباب kămyăb, successful (kām, desire + yăb < yāftan, to obtain) muft xōr, freeloader (muft, free + xör < xōrdan, to eat)
شكر گزار Sukr guzār, grateful (sukr, thanks + guzār < guzästan, to pass) گهرْى سh ghạ̣ì sāz, watchmaker (gharī, watch + säz < sāxtan, to make)

پابند päband, restrained, bound (pā, foot + band < bastan, to bind)

## Reduplicative compounds of present stems



## Compounds with past stems as the second element

darxāst, application (dar, in + xāst <xāstan, to wish)

## Compounds with past participles as the second element

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { شادى شده Sädi Suda, married (Sädī, marriage + Suda, become < sud } \\
& \text { < Sudan, to be, become) } \\
& \text { تعليم يافتر tālīm yāfta, educated (tälīm, education + yăfta, obtained <yāft } \\
& \text { < yāftan, to obtain) } \\
& \text { pees karda, presented (pēs, before + karda, did < kard } \\
& <\text { kardan, to do) }
\end{aligned}
$$

## Compounds of verb stems joined by 0 , 'and'

bandobast, arrangement (band, present stem + bast, past stem < bastan, to bind)
 past stem <raftan, to go)
Nore: Nominal suffixes may be used to form new words from compounds, and compounds may be further compounded:

| كابيابي |
| :---: |
| تنغ دنى |
| كارخانه دار |
| درخواست دبنده |

kămyăbī, success ( $\overline{\mathbf{1}}+$ kăm, desire + yăb < yāftan, to obtain) tang difi, meanness (ì tang, narrow + dil, heart)
kārxānadār, mill owner (dār + kār, work + xăña, house)
darxāst dehinda, applicant (dar, in + xāst < xāstan, to wish + deh < dādan, to give + -inda, noun of agent suffix)

## MISCELLANEOUS

## 1408 Comparison of adjectives with tar, tarin

The comparative and superlative of Perso-Arabic adjectives can be formed in Urdu with the Persian suffixes tar تر ترين (comparative) and tarin (superlative). Some of these Perso-Arabic comparatives are used in colloquial spoken Urdu, whereas others are used in literary Urdu. In Urdu, Persian comparatives and superlatives often lose their comparative or superlative force and merely intensify the adjective.

Examples of the use of Persian comparatives and superlatives in sentences may be found in $\S 315$.

Comparative: adjective + tar

| بد خوب $\leftarrow$ خو | bad, bad $\rightarrow$ badtar, very bad $\mathbf{x u ̄ b}$, well $\rightarrow \mathbf{x u} b \mathbf{t a r}$, better |
| :---: | :---: |
|  | kam, less, few $\rightarrow$ kamtar, even less, fewer |
| بـ | beh, good $\rightarrow$ behtar, better, very good |
| خراب | xaräb, bad $\rightarrow$ xaräb tar, worse |
| دلحֶسپ | dilcasp, interesting $\rightarrow$ dilcasp tar, more interesting |
| تيز | têz, sharp, fast $\rightarrow$ tēz tar, faster |
| خاص ¢ خاص تر | xās, special $\rightarrow$ xās tar, more special |

## Superlative: adjective $+\boldsymbol{t a r i n}$

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { بد } \quad \text { bad, bad } \rightarrow \text { badtarin, worst } \\
& \text { خوب } \leftarrow \text { خüb, well } \rightarrow \text { xūb tarin, best } \\
& \text { kam, less, few } \rightarrow \text { kamtarin, fewest, least } \\
& \text { 仿 } \leftarrow \quad \text { beh, good } \rightarrow \text { behtarin, best, very very good } \\
& \text { خراب } \leftarrow \text { خراب ترين } \\
& \text { تيز } \quad \text { tēz, sharp, fast } \rightarrow \text { tẽz tarin, fastest } \\
& \text { xās, special } \rightarrow \text { xās tarīn, most special, intimate }
\end{aligned}
$$

## 1409 Persian numbers

Persian cardinal and ordinal numbers occur in Urdu compounds and idioms.

| يكـ | yak, one |
| :---: | :---: |
| دو | du, two |
| ~ | se, three |
| حهر | cahār, four |
| پِنج | panj, five |
| شسش | Sas, six |
| بفت | haft, seven |
| بشت | hast, eight |
| نر | nuh, nine |
| -1 | dah, ten |

Ordinals: yakum, duvum, sivum, cahărum, etc.

```
يكم جون
yakum jūn
```

the first of June
س
se paher
the third watch (approximately 3 p.m. to 6 p.m.)
يكدلى
yakdili
unanimity

As Urdu borrows much vocabulary from Arabic, elements of Arabic word formation are present in Urdu. This chapter presents an overview of some of the more important Arabic elements in modern Urdu.

Although many Arabic words occur in everyday Urdu, heavily Arabicized Urdu is found mostly in literary language, and is particularly typical of administrative language or newspaper texts.

The phonemic transcription used in other parts of this grammar is necessarily replaced in this chapter by a transliteration representing the Arabic characters.

Note: where meanings of the Arabic loanwords have changed, the current Urdu meaning, rather than the original Arabic one, is given. The Urdu pronunciation, rather than the Arabic one, is also shown.

## TRILITERAL ROOT STRUCTURE OF ARABIC WORDS

The triliteral root is the basic structure of the Arabic word. Most Arabic words consist of three root consonants, or radicals (a few consist of four). The vowels do not belong to the root, but to the grammatical structure of the language. Various derived verbs, with their associated participles and verbal nouns, are formed by adding affixes and vowel patterns to the root ( $\$ 1501$ ). The derived participles and verbal nouns (rarely the finite verbs) have been borrowed into Urdu, and the Arabic grammatical patterns are evident mainly in semantic relationships between words with the same root:

| بحنت <br> meḥnat effort | المتحان <br> imtihān examination |  | ن <br> meḥan <br> sufferings |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| قبول <br> qabül acceptance | قابل <br> qābil capable | رقبول maqbūl popular | اقبال iqbā prosperity | استقبال <br> istiqbāl <br> reception |
| علم knowledge | عالم ©alim scholar | رععلوم mãใūm known |  | بر mưalim teacher |


| نظم | هنظوم | تنظيم | دنظّم | \| | نظام |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| nazm | manẓūm | tanz̧im | munazzam | intizām | niẓām |
| poetry | metric | organization | organized | arrangement | system |

## 1501 Arabic derived verb forms

Arabic derives nine verb forms from simple verbs. ${ }^{1}$ The simple verb is designated as 'Form I', and the remaining forms are numbered from Form II to Form X. Form IX does not occur in Urdu. Each verb form has its own verbal noun ${ }^{2}$ (VN), active participle (AP) and passive participle (PP). Arabic verbal nouns and participles are common in Urdu, and the student will find it rewarding to learn the formation of verbal nouns and participles.

The Arabic root 'فَعَلَ (fa ala), which means 'do', is traditionally used as a key to demonstrate the affix and vowel patterns in the derived forms. The function, derivation and formation of Forms I-VII and X of "فَعَ are shown in Table 31 on p . 260 . The verbal nouns and participles belonging to these forms are shown in Table 32 on p. 261. Strong verbs (verbs which do not have the letters ('vy) as one of their radicals) conform to the pattem of Platts, Dictionary of Urdu, Classical Hindi and English may be consulted for information about the derivations of Arabic vocabulary.

The aspects distinguished in the dcrived vcrbs (intensive, causative, reflexive, passive, ctc.) are the traditional ones in Arabic, not in Urdu, which has its own means of forming causatives or passives. The Arabic aspects help to shed light on the semantic links between related words, but do not substitute for a dictionary in finding the meaning of a borrowed Arabic word.

1 There are in fact 14 derived forms, but Porms 11 to 15 are too rare to be important for Urdu.
2 Called the 'infiniiive noun' in Platts, Dictionary of Urdu, Classical Hindi and English


## 1502 Arabic verbal nouns and participles

## Strong verbs

Form I verbal nouns do not have a predictable pattern. The active and passive participles of Form I have the patterns fắ il and maf īl respectively. The participles of the derived Forms II-X all prefix mu. Active participles contain a short -i- in the final syllable, while passive participles contain a short -a-.

Table 32: Verbal nouns and participles of فَعَلَ and its derived forms

| Form | Verb | Verbal Noun | Active Part. | Passive P |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 1 | فَكِلْ | \%etc. | فاعِل | , |
| 11 | فَعْلِّ | تَفْيِل | بُفَّكِّ | , |
| 11 | ناعكل | ْـُعْاعَّت |  | , |
| IV | آنَّ | إفعّل | \% | S |
| $\checkmark$ | تَفَّكَّ | تَنَّكُلِ | \% | , |
| vi | تَفَاعَلِّ | تَفَاعًل |  | بِّ |
| Vil | إنفَّل | إنِّنِّال |  | , |
| Vill |  | ! إنيّكال | , | , |
| x |  | إستِّفًا |  | هُستِفْكِ |

## Examples

Form 1 (simple verb)

> نَظُم nazm, order, poetry, is VN I of , arrange, join.
> ناظظمَ
> .
> علم F علم F , know, knowledge, science, is VN I of
> . علم
> . عَعلوم målūm, known, is PP I of علمَ

## Form II (intensive)

Form II verbal nouns are always feminine in Urdu.
تَعليم ta taim, education, is VN II of علم , know.
تُنظطم tanzìm, organization, party, is VN II of نظم , arrange, join
علم mu'allim, teacher, instructor, is AP II of
.
تَصوير taṣvīr, picture, is VN II of form.
Compare the active and passive participles of صوَر Form II of صور: سُصوْرٍ muṣavvir, painter, سُصوَّ muṣavvar, illustrated.

Form III (CONATIVE, REGIPROCAL)
Form III is not so common as the previous two.
, jihād, holy war, is VN III of جهاد , strive.
جهجد mujahhada, endeavour, strife, ${ }^{3}$ is VN III of
جههد mujāhid, fighter in holy war, is AP III of شُجابِ

## Form IV (causative)

Form IV has many examples in Urdu. The verbal noun and active participle are the parts of speech usually found.

إسِلام islām, Islam, is VN IV of سلم , be safe.
س س س سلمِم muslim, Muslim, is AP IV of
إقبال iqbāl, prosperity; confession, is VN IV of قبل , receive, accept.

## Forms V to VII

These are less frequently found.
تَعَلْقَ . صوف taṣavvuf, mysticism, is VN V of تَصوفُ

3 The two verbal nouns of Form 111 will have different but related meanings. In the case of the root ${ }^{\text {a }}$, the verbal noun on the pattern of fifal, jihād, has a religious sense, whereas the verbal noun on the pattern mư̂áalat, mujāhada, has a secular meaning. Arabic has been changed to Urdu $\circ$ (-a).

علق muta ${ }^{\text {c alliq, concerning, is AP V of }}$

إنقِلاب inqilāb, revolution, is VN VII of قلب , turn, change.

## Form VIII

This form occurs frequently

.
إنْتِخاب intixāb, selection, choice, is VN VIII of نخب, extract.
نُخر muntaxab, chosen, elected, is PP VIII of
إِتِاف ixtilāf, disagreement, is VN VIII of خلفِ , be left behind.
مُخْتِف .
Assimilation of $\boldsymbol{t}$ to dental consonants and $c \boldsymbol{g}$ ('v) takes place in verbal nouns of Form VIII. (See also 'Weak verbs', on p. 264.)

ع
إتحّاًد ittiḥăd, union, is VN VIII of وحد, to be one.


## Form $X$

إستِعملا iste māl, use, is VN X of عمل, do, act.
عسل mustaimal, current, in use, used, is PP X of
إستِقبال istiqbāI, reception, welcome, is VN X of قبل , receive, accept.
", mustaqbil, future, is AP X of قبل.

## Doubled radicals

Roots whicb have the same consonant in the second and third place may lose short vowels, unless one of the radicals is further doubled in the pattern.

Some very common Urdu words contain doubled radicals, but this is not apparent until the roots are inflected, because in Urdu a final doubled consonant is not pronounced, and tasdid is usually not written.

4 The spelling has been assimilated to Urdu. The Arabic spelling is ${ }^{\text {uncen }}$ with the pronunciation mudda ${ }^{\text {a }}{ }^{\text {a }}$

خاص xāṣ, special, זاص" xāṣs

حق haq, right, حقّ haqq

## Example

muhiqq, speaking the truth, is AP IV(muffil) of حُحْتِ" , be just.
Compare: ~بُحِّقَ muhaqqiq research scholar (AP II of تَحقِيق taḥqiq, research, inquiry (VN II of حقى)

## Weak verbs

Roots which contain $\& g$ ('vy) have irregular inflectional patterns:
(a) initial $g v$ may be assimilated to a following $i$, $u$ or $t$; initial $\subset$ hamza (represented in Urdu by 1 alif) is usually retained, but may be assimilated to the vowel-a in the prefix - ta-;
(b) medial (vy) are assimilated to a following vowel;
(c) final $و(v y)$ is written as $ى$ in derived participles; in active participles $ى$ is pronounced $\overline{-}$, and in passive participles it is pronounced $\overline{\mathbf{a}}$ and may be written ${ }^{\prime}$. The passive participles are sometimes spelled with 1 alif in Urdu.

## Examples

, mu'assir, effective, is AP II (mufacc ${ }^{\text {chil }}$ ) of , make an impression.
تأثّر ta'aṣsur, impression, is VN V (tafa $\left.{ }^{\text {cex }} \mathrm{ul}\right)$ of .
تاثير tāsir, effect, efficacy, is VN II (tafiil) of اثر الثر.
قائِم qẵ'im, fixed, established, is AP I (fåil) of قوم , stand.
بَقَام maqäm, place, site, is VN I of قوم.
قوم muqīm, residing, is AP IV (muf il) of .
راضیى rāāī, pleased, consenting, is AP I (farii) of رضى , approve.

مُدُّعا


## NOUN DUALS AND PLURALS

Arabic distinguishes three numbers: the singular, dual and plural.

## 1503 Dual form of Arabic nouns

The Arabic dual suffix occurring in Urdu is -ain.

```
والدين
vālidain (< välid, father)
parents
```


## 1504 Plural forms of Arabic nouns

Strictly speaking, only Arabic loanwords may take Arabic plural suffixes. Many Arabic loanwords have both Arabic and Urdu plural forms. In such cases, use of Arabic plural forms is usually typical of a formal or literary style.

## Sound (regular) plurals

The plural suffix -in is used mainly with participles.

## muntazimin, administrators

band kē muta'assirinn, those affected by the dam
The plural suffix -ăt is used with nouns, including verbal nouns. Plurals in -ät are normally the same gender as their singulars. The plural in -ät is sometimes used with words of Persian or Indic origin.

```
حاللات hāI \(\rightarrow\) hālăt, circumstances
K kāgaz \(\rightarrow\) kāgzāt, papers, documents
جنَ
```

The Urdu names of branches of learning are formed with the suffix -iyăt (-i and the plural in -āt).

```
ل lisān̄yāāt (f.), linguistics > لسانيات , tongue
ma \({ }^{\mathrm{c}}{ }^{\text {asśiyā̄t (f.), economics > }}\) >
```


## Broken (irregular) plurals

Broken plurals are formed by changing the vowel patterns of the singular noun. Tbere are numerous broken plural patterns, of which the more common are
listed below. Broken plurals in Urdu are normally the same gender as their singulars.

The real structure of words with doubled radicals becomes apparent from their broken plurals.
(a) $\mid(\mathrm{a}-)$ is prefixed, and the vowels are changed, to the pattern af ${ }^{\mathrm{f}}{ }^{-1} \mathbf{:}^{6}$

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { خَبِرَ } \leftarrow \text { xabar, news } \rightarrow \text { axbār, newspaper }
\end{aligned}
$$

(b) The vowels are changed, to the pattern fu'ūl:

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { cilm } \rightarrow \text { c culūm, sciences } \\
& \text { حَق } \uparrow \text { haqq } \rightarrow \text { huqqüq, rights }
\end{aligned}
$$

(c) The vowels are changed, to the pattern fuiul:

$$
\text { كيتاب } \leftarrow \text { kitāb } \rightarrow \text { kutub, books }
$$

(d) The vowels are changed to the pattern fu'alā (fu'alā' in Arabic, but the final c is generally not written in Urdu). This pattern is typical of participles of the pattern fail and also in some cases of facil.

عَālim $\rightarrow$ 'ulamā, religious scholars

(e) The vowels are changed to the pattern fa'ail (originally fa'a'll in Arabic). This pattern may occur with AP If $\overline{\text { ã }} \mathfrak{i l}$, but typically handles derived four-consonant patterns which do not contain long vowels.

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { فاثِثده fā’ida } \rightarrow \text { favā’id, benefits (< VN I of فَوائد } \\
& \text { (سحجد masjid } \rightarrow \text { masājid, mosques (noun of place of }
\end{aligned}
$$

${ }^{(f)}$ The second radical is doubled, and the vowels changed, to the pattern fu"āl. This is typical of AP I fácil.
, hāākim $\rightarrow$ ḥukkām, rulers, officials, commanders

[^29](g) $\mid(-\bar{a}-)$ is infixed, and the vowel pattern will be a-a $\overline{\mathrm{a}}$ - . This pattern typically handles derived four-consonant patterns which contain a long second vowel. Verbal nouns of Form II (tafili) always contain a long ī as the second vowel.
\[

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { تَصوير } \leftarrow \text { taṣvīr } \rightarrow \text { taşāvīr, pictures } \\
& \text { tafṣil } \rightarrow \text { tafāṣìl, details }
\end{aligned}
$$
\]

(h) $\mid(a-)$ is prefixed, and the vowels changed, to the pattern afic ${ }^{\text {l }} \overline{\mathrm{a}}$ '. This is common when the root is weak, the second radical is doubled and the noun refers to a rational being.

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { وكَ valī } \rightarrow \text { auliyā’, saints }
\end{aligned}
$$

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { doubled radical ب) }
\end{aligned}
$$

Urdu nouns with Arabic dual or plural forms do not take the Urdu oblique plural suffix in-ōm.

والدين كى اجازت
vālidain kì ijāzat
the permission of one's parents
طلبا نـ عرضي يبش كى
tulabā nē ${ }^{\text {corzỉ pēs ki }}$
The students presented a petition.
Compare:
طلبـ علمول نـ، عرضى ييشى
tālib ilmṑn nē carzū pês ki
The students presented a petition.

## ARABIC PREPOSITIONS AND PARTICLES

## 1505 Prepositions

Nore: The following are only a few Arabic prepositions. Phrases beginning with Arabic prepositions must be looked up under the preposition in dictionaries.

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { فی fí, 'per' } \\
& \text { فد fì sadì per cent } \\
& \text { فی فی iñ säl per year }
\end{aligned}
$$

ب bi, 'with', 'in'
bilkul, completely (bi + al-kull, see §1507)
bittafṣil detailed (bi + at-tafṣill, see §1507)
In the above example, the definite article al is assimilated to the $\boldsymbol{t}$ in tafsil, because t is a Samsil (sun) letter. See $\S 1507$.

J li, 'for', 'to'
الحمد الشه al hamdu li’llāh, Praise be to God!

## 1506 Negative particles

$y$ lā, 'no', 'not', 'without' (absolute negation)

لا lā javāb, answerless, matchless (lā + javāb, answer)
غير $\gamma$ रair, 'im-', 'un-', 'non-'
ralr is a noun in Arabic ('stranger'), and the words below would be analysed as noun + Noun compounds in that language. In Urdu, it occurs as a noun only in the compound postposition bayair ( $\$ 531$ ).

> غيرحاضر زairḥāẓir, absent (үair + hāąir, present)
> غيرملكى Yairmulki, foreign(er) (үair + mulk, land +i, adjectival suffix)

## MISCELLANEOUS

1507 The definite article
The Arabic definite article, al-, occurs in some borrowed phrases and proper names. The vowel a- in the article is assimilated to the final vowel of the preceding noun ( $-\mathbf{u},-\mathbf{i}$ or $-\mathbf{a}^{7}$ ).

يوم الحساب (>yaumu al-ḥisāb)
yaum ul-ḥisāb
the Day of Reckoning

```
عبد الحق
`abd-ul-haqq (<*`abdu al-haqq)
Servant of the Truth (God)
```

بالكل
bilkul (<* bi al-kull, in the whole; bi is a preposition (§1505))
completely

If the definite article occurs before a word beginning with any of the following (dental or alveolar) consonants: ت ث د ذ رز (called samsī or 'sun' letters ${ }^{8}$ in Arabic), the -1 - is assimilated to the following letter in pronunciation. It is written as though it were pronounced 1 .

عبد الرحـن
cabd-ur-rahmān (< *‘abdu al-rahmān)
Servant of the Compassionate (God)
السالام عليكم
as-salāmu ${ }^{\text {calaikum ( }}$ (< * al-salāmu 'alaikum)
Peace be on you.

## 1508 Nouns of place

Nouns of place have the patterns maf ${ }^{\mathfrak{c}}$ al and maf ${ }^{\text {f }}$ il:
. . , waktab, school (>
masjid, mosque (> سشجد

## 1509 Nouns of instrument

Nouns of instrument have the patterns mif ${ }^{\kappa}$ al and miffala (the second is rare in Urdu):

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text {. بنتا miftāh, key (< نتح , open) } \\
& \text { نسيزان mizān, scales (< }<\text {, weigh) }
\end{aligned}
$$

8 The remaining letters are called qamrī, or 'moon' letters.

## 1510 Elative

The elative (comparative and superlative of adjectives) has the pattern 'af al: ${ }^{9}$

```
\T akbar, bigger, biggest \leftarrow% kabïr, big
|T aksar, usually, often \leftarrow \leftarrow kasir, abundant
```


## 1511 Suffixes

## tanvin

Arabic adverbs ending in -an have been borrowed into Urdu. These are written with (tanvin), which is usually written over 1 , but may be written over 0 . The Arabic noun from which the adverb is derived may also found in Urdu, although the semantic connection between the two is not always obvious.

```
فور > فوراً
fauran < faur
immediately < hurry, haste
تقريب > تقريباً
taqrỉban < taqrib (VN II of قرب)
approximately < bringing near; ceremony
```

The noun may have lost its original Arabic pronunciation and spelling:
( دفعت >) دفعر > دفعتشً ، دنعتاً
dafatan < daffa
suddenly < time, moment

## Abstract suffix -iyat

Many abstract nouns in Arabic have the pattern fa lat, e.g. 'abundance'. Abstract nouns of quality can also be formed by adding -iyat (-iyyat in Arabic). They are all feminine in Urdu.

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { شخصص } \leftarrow \text { شخصصيت šaxṣiyat, personality } \leftarrow \text { šaxs, person }
\end{aligned}
$$

9 The initial 1 (-a) of the elative is actually the consonantal e hamza in Arabic: بمزة القطع (hamzat al-qat). The alif is the seat of the hamza

> insāniyat, humanity $\leftarrow$ insān, human being
> إنسانيان $\leftarrow$

## Adjectival suffix -ān̄̄

The adjectival suffix forms adjectives from nouns.
جسبم
jismānī, physical $\leftarrow$ jism, body
روح $\leftarrow$
rūhāñi, spiritual $\leftarrow$ rūh, spirit

## 16 CEREMONIOUS AND PIOUS SPEECH

## GREETINGS AND INTRODUCTIONS

## 1601 Greetings

ādäb arz is a greeting which may be exchanged by Muslims and non-Muslims. The reply is also àdäb arz

```
آداب عرض
ādăb arz
hello (may I present my respects)
```

as-salāmu alaikum is a greeting given by Muslims, generally to other Muslims. The reply is va alaikum as-salām.

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { السلامُ عليكم - و عليكم السلام - } \\
& \text { as-salāmu alaikum-va alaikum as-salām } \\
& \text { Peace be on you,-And on you, peace. }
\end{aligned}
$$

xudā hāfiz, 'goodbye (God keep you)' is said to members of any religion. allāh häfiz is a neologism and means the same. The same phrase is repeated in reply.

| خدا حافظ. | الله حافظ |
| :---: | :---: |
| xudā hāfiz | allăh hāfiz |
| God keep you. | God keep you |

When someone is travelling away from home, the following phrases may be added to xudā hāfiz or allāh hāfiz:

| فى اسان اللّ | الله كـ حوالـ |
| :---: | :---: |
| fî amăn illăh | allāh kē havāle |
| in the protection of Go | (in) God's |

When a child greets an elder, the elder responds with short phrases that are in effect short prayers (duā) for the child's welfare, and usually places his hand on the child's head in blessing:

| جيتخ ونو | جيتى لـو |
| :---: | :---: |
| jitē rahō | jītír rahō |
| May you remain alive! (to a boy) | May you remain alive! (to a girl) |
| سلامت زبو. | خوش زوّ |
| salāmat rahō | xuśs rahŏ |
| May you remain safe! | May you remain happy! |

السلام عليكم دادیى جان ! كيسي بيس آپ ؟

as-salāmu alaikum, dādī jān! kaisī haim āp?
-va alaikum as-salām bêtạ! jutē rahō! xus rahō!
Hello, grandmother! How are you?
Hello, son! May you remain alive! May you be happy!

## 1602 Introductions and polite exchanges

Traditional polite phrases of introduction are socially asymmetrical. Courtesy demands that the person who asks about someone's name, health, etc. use respectful, even ceremonial language, while the other person should respond with modest simplicity, or even ceremonious self-deprecation. This formal etiquette is called takalluf تكلف: in Urdu.

إسم شرين 9
ism-e-sarif?
What is your name (lit. noble name)?
آپ كى تعريف ؟ \جناب كیى تعريف ؟
āp kī tärị̂ janãb kĭ tärif?
What is your name/your honour's name (lit. praise)?

## Examples


ism-e-Sarị??- mujhē nasìm kahtē haim
(Your) noble name?-They call me Nasim.

janāb kī tärif? - nācizz (bandē) kō äbid kahtē haim
Your honour's praise?-They call the worthless thing/slave Abid.

One may reply respectfully to inquiries about one's health by alluding to the efficacy of the other person's prayers, or by thanking God (§1604).

- نزاج شريف ؟
mizāj sarif?
How are you?
سزاج بخير ؟
mizāj baxair?
How are you?

سزاج كيسا بِ ؟
mizäj kaisā bai?
How is (your) disposition?
آپ كی دعا بی - آپپ
āp kī duā bai - āp kī duā cähiē
It is your prayer - your prayer is needed.

## Examples


mizāj sarif? -āp ki duā hai
How are you?-I am fine (due to your prayer).


aur sunāō nasīm bētā, kār-o-bār kaisā hai?
-bas cacā jān, āp ki duā cāhiē, bilkul thīk cal rahā hai
What else (tell more), Nasim son, how is business?
-It's going just fine, uncle dear, with your prayer.
With similar asymmetry, one refers to another's house as a mansion (daulat xāna دولت خانت) or at least a 'residence' (rihäis ربأشن), and to one's own in modest terms or even self-deprecating terms.

āp kī rihäits kahām̀ bai?-maim̀ vāris rọ̄ par rahtā būm
Where do you live (lit. Where is your residence?)?-I live on Waris Road.

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { آپ كا دولت خانت كهلا } \\
& \text { äp kā daulat xāna kahām hai?-mērā үarīb xāna gulbarg mēmi hai } \\
& \text { Where is your mansion?-My humble dwelling is in Gulberg. }
\end{aligned}
$$

[^30]One may ask about a person's nationality with the term 'connection' (taalluq تكلّ ). In asking about the duration of a person's stay, the term 'stay', 'establishment' (qeyām قيام) is appropriate in the question, whereas the response should be plain and straightforward.
آپ كV تعلق كهان سی بی ؟ - جناب ، بيى إنگليندُ كا بول -
āp kā taalluq kahām̉ sē bai?-janāb, maim inglaiṃ̀ kā būm
Where are you from (your connection)?-Sir, I'm from (lit. of) England. ${ }^{3}$
لاليور ديي آپ كا قيامكب سی lāhaur mēm̄ âp kā qeyām kab sē bai?-maimi yahăm̉ dō mahīnē sē hüm̉ How longhave you been in Lahore?-I have been here for two months.

When asking someone how his family is, one should rather ask about his home, particularly when a man asks another man if his family is well. This is because women may observe parda inquire about the welfare of the women in another man's household.

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { البل خان تو خيريت سع بي ؟ } \\
& \text { ahl-e-xāna tō xairiyat sē baim? - Khuda kb chuku holt }
\end{aligned}
$$

Is your family well (lit. Are the people of the house well?)?
گهر بيى سبب خيريت به ؟
ghar mêè sab xairiat hai?
Is everything okay in (your) house?
When leaving a social gathering, it is polite to ask permission (ijäzat الجازت) to leave, or ask for leave (ruxsat رخصت ).
ابب مجهر اجازت ديجئُ -
ab mujbē ijazazat dijieie
May I leave now (lit. Please give permission now.)?
اب بين جناب سـ رخصت حانيول گا -
ab maim janāb sē ruxsat cāhüm gā
I have to leave now (lit. Now I will wish leave from your honour.).
3. An alternative reply, if one lives in England but is travelling abroad, is maim inglaimd sē āyä hü̆, 'I have come from England.' If one is living in England, one can say maim inglaimḍ mémi rahtā hü̈, 'I live in England.'

## FORMAL AND CEREMONIOUS SPEECH

## 1603 Formal polite requests

Formal polite requests or inquiries to strangers of equal or superior status use verb phrases with tasrifi تشريف, 'one’s honourable self'. (See 'Other request forms', $\S 610$.) tastrif is never used in the response.

kyā āp kal kī dāvat mēm̀ tasriif lă saktē haim?
-jī hām inşa allāh maimin zarūr āūm̀ gā
Can you come to tomorrow's party?
-Yes, I'll definitely come, God willing.

-
as-salām alaikum, kyā dākṭar sāhib tasrifif rakhtē haim̀?
-va alaikum as-salām, mainí dākṭar vahīd bōl rahā hǜm
Hello, is the doctor available?
-Hello, this is Doctor Vahid speaking
Two respectful ways of asking for a favour are:

kyã āp mëreè liē èk taklïf karēḿn gẽ?
May I bother you with a favour (lit. Would you take a trouble for me)?
ميرى ايكـ گزارش نـ،
mēri êk guzāris hai ke ...
I have a request, that ...

## 1604 Thanking someone

Expressions of thanks (sukriya شكري~, 'thank you', and meharbāni Nربربانى, navāzi§ نوازش, and karam كرم, all meaning 'kindness') are often countered with a modest disclaimer: mēră farz thā, 'It was my duty.'

آپ ن ميرسـ كئِ وقت نكالا - بهت شكريم -
āp nē mêrē liè vaqt nikālā. bahut sukniya
You found time for me. Thank you very much.

```
- إس ميس شكريم كى كيا بات نـ - يم تو ديرا فرض تها -
is mēm sukriya kī kyā bāt hai. ye tō mērā farz thā
There is no need of thanks. It was my duty.
```


## 1605 Congratulations

Congratulations are expressed with mubārak $\quad, \quad$,blessed', 'fortunate' or mubārakbād بماركباد, 'blessing(s)', 'congratulation(s)'. The response is āp kō bhì mubārak (hō), 'May you also be blessed.'

> too. ${ }^{4}$
> عيد مبارك ! - آتپ كو بهى عيد مباركى
> id mubärak!-āp kō bhī ì mubārak
> Happy Eid!-Happy Eid to you too.
bhai, naē ghar kī bahut mubārak (mubărakbād)-sukriya, äp kō bhī mubărak
Friend, hearty congratulations on the new house.-Congratulations to you,

A person may be congratulated on a job well done with sābās, 'bravo':
$\square$

ssābāShãmid, tum nē āj babut acchā kām kiyā. tumhḗm inăm milnā cāhiē
Bravo Hamid, you did a fine job today. You deserve a prize.

## PIOUS PHRASES AND EXCLAMATIONS

A muslim, a believer in Islam, means one who has submitted his will to God. The more common term in spoken Urdu is musalmān of everyday actions, the Muslim alludes to the sovereignty of God in human life, through a variety of pious expressions, many borrowed from Arabic.

[^31]
## 1606 Mentioning holy prophets

Whenever the name of the Prophet Mohammad (PBUH) is uttered or written, the following phrase is added:
صلى اللّ عليم و سلّم

## sallallāhu alaihi va sallam

May God's peace and blessings be upon him!
In writing, this is usually abbreviated to the sign " (and in English, 'Pbur' an abbreviation for 'Peace be upon him.'). The third person pronoun used to refer to the Prophet is āp (§203). The title hazrat حضرت, 'lord', 'sir', 'master' is prefaced to the name of the Prophet as well as to the names of others considered prophets in Islam, as well as saints and highly respected persons. ${ }^{6}$
حضرت دتحد صلىى اللَّ عليم و سلَم...
hazrat muhammad sallallähu alaihi va sallam ...
Muhammad, may God's peace and blessings be upon him ...
Another phrase is added to the names of prophets other than Muhammad (PBUH):

> عليم السلام
alaihissalām
on whom be peace
حضرت عيسى' عليب السلام ...
hazrat ìsă alaihissalām ...
Christ, on whom be peace ...

## 1607 Phrases for planning or beginning something

insã allăh is prefaced to expressions of future plans, since according to Islamic belief it is presumptuous of human beings to think that the future can be ordered otherwise than God wills.

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { النشاء الشَh } \\
& \text { insā allahh } \\
& \text { if God wills }
\end{aligned}
$$



kal hamārē hām dāvat hai. kyā āp taśrīf lā sakēm gē? -jī hām̀ insā allāh maim zarūr āūmn gā
Tomorrow there's a party at our place. Can you come? Yes, I'll definitely come, God willing.

One mentions God when starting something new, or beginning a new day.
بسم الشا الرحـن الرحيم
bismillähir-rahmänir-rahīm
in the name of God, the merciful and the compassionate

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { الجّها تو آئبع بهم آج كا كام شروع, كرتٍ ابيى - } \\
& \text { - } \\
& \text { acchā tō äiyē ham āj kā kām surū kartē haim }
\end{aligned}
$$

-bismillăhir-rahmānir-rahīm
Come on, we'll begin today's work.
-in the name of God, the merciful and the compassionate

## 1608 Phrases invoking protection and short prayers

One of the following two phrases is prefaced to any expression of praise. The first, māsāallāh, is addressed to those younger in age when giving blessings or compliments. The second, subhān allāh, is not age-restricted.

| . | سبحان اله |
| :---: | :---: |
| mâsã allāh | subhăn allāh |
| what God wills | God be praised; with the grace of God |

There is a belief that praise can attract evil to the person or thing praised, the above phrases, which give the real credit to God, are a way of invoking protection for the person or thing praised.

mãsuā allăh janāb, āp kā bẹtā tō ab xāsā harā hō gayā hai
My goodness sir, your son has grown quite big (as God wills).

The following phrases may be prefaced to a compliment to invoke protection from the evil eye (casm-e-bad چشپم بد, burī nazar بُرى نظر ).

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { حش~م بلد دور cám-e-bad dūr } \\
& \text { casmen }
\end{aligned}
$$

(May) the evil eye (remain) far.


```
nazar na lagē
May the evil eye not affect.
```

خدا برى نظر سی بیائُ
xudā burī nazar sē bacāē
May God save from the evil eye.

casm-e-bad dūr. bahut hī xūbsūrat bacca bai
The evil eye (be) far. What a beautiful child.
allāh karē and xudā karē are used in wishing for something (a form of prayer)

## اله

alläh karē
May God grant ...

|  | خدا نـ كرســ | خدا نخواستر |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| allāh na karē | xudā na karē | xudā naxāsta |
| May God forbid ... | May God forbid ... | May God forbid |

allāh is the name of God used by Muslims, while xudā may be used by both Muslims and non-Muslims. In the negative, these prayers invoke protection from misfortune. xudä naxästa is the Persian form of allāh na karē. All these phrases take the subjunctive form of the verb. With allăh na karë and xudă naxästa, the negative of the subjunctive may be used to express the possibility of an undesirable event (\$608).

allăh na karē vo bīmār bō
God forbid (that) he should be sick.

is vaqt bāhar mat jāō, xudā na karēkucb bō na jāē
Don't go out now, God forbid (that) something might happen (to you).

7 buri nazar is usualiy shortened to nazar, and the meaning understood from the context. The primary meaning of nazar is 'sight', 'vision'.

If someone wishes for another person's benefit in a prayer, the second person responds with āmin $\tilde{ن}$

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { alläh karē āp kē khōē būē paisē mill jāēñ-ã̀minn } \\
& \text { God grant that you get your lost money back.-Amen. }
\end{aligned}
$$

If a situation is truly hazardous, the phrase xudā burī gharī sē bacāē, 'God save from the evil moment' may be said.

بهئى زسانْ بهت خراب bhaì zamāna bahut xaräb baî. xudā burī gharī sē bacāē āp xyāl rakhēm̉
Brother, the times are very bad. God save you in the evil moment, you take care.

## 1609 Phrases of repentance and requests for forgiveness

The following expressions are used when one hears of something reprehensible. tauba tauba توبر توبٌ is a mild expression of repentance, said while touching one's earlobes, and is variously translated 'God forbid!' 'Never again!' astayfirullāh استغغر الش means 'God forgive me' and is said when a serious mistake has been committed, to ask God and the person offended for forgiveness. lâ haula va lā quvvat (a shortened form of لاله lả baula va lā quvvata illä billāh) means 'There is no force or strength (other than of God)' and is said to banish Satan or curse something evil.


tauba tauba, kyāāp nē sunā ke rā̃id risvat lē̂̃â hai -astayfirullăh. bahut hì burì bāt hai. allāh muäf karē
Heaven forfend, did you hear that Rashid takes bribes?
-God have mercy; that's terible. May God forgive (him).
كيا آپ ن

kyāā ā nē ye kitāb pạ̣hī hai? kaisī hai?
lā haula va lā quvvat nehāyat fuzūl kitãb hai
Have you read this book? How is it?
To hell with it, it's an utterly worthless book.

If someone says something offensive to or about an elder or respected person, or offensive to God, one must promptly say maäz allăh, 'May God defend me!' It is also a rejection of blasphemy. maăz allāh لهع may be said with lă baula va là quvvat.

بهئى بيي اُن بزرگ كیى بات نههي رانتا -

bhaī maim un buzurg kī bāt nahīm̀ māntā
-tauba tauba, asta үfirullāh. aisì bāt nahīm kahtê. maāz allāh, gunāh bō gā $\mathrm{Pal}, \mathrm{I}$ won't obey that elder.
-God forbid, God have mercy, you're not saying such a thing. God protect you, it would be a sin.

## 1610 Phrases for sad occasions

The following phrases are used when the speaker finds himself helpiess in an unfortunate situation, for example, in responding to condolences upon a death.

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { جبيم بولالى برضمى } \\
& \text { jaisē maulă kï marzi } \\
& \text { As God wills ... } \\
& \text { جيسـ الشهى رضا } \\
& \text { jaisē alläh kī rizā } \\
& \text { As God wills ... }
\end{aligned}
$$


bahut afsōs hūà-jaisē allāh kī marzï
(I was) very sorry (to hear about it ).-It was as God willed.

1611 Phrases for happy occasions
God is praised or thanked when the speaker reports on a favourable situation.
الحـد لّل

## alhamdu lillăh

Praise be to God!

Tell (me) more, what's happening? Is everything okay?
-God be praised; everything is okay.

الهُ كا شكر بـ
allāh kā sukr bai
Thanks (is) to God.
 - الهـ cacā jān! āp kī tabiat ab kaisì hai? -allāh kā sukr hai bêtī, bahut bebtar būm̀
Uncle dear! How is your health now?
-Thank God, daughter! I am much better now.
Note that Sukr can only be used with reference to God; if a person is to be thanked, sukriya must be used instead. See $\S 1605$.

The bibliography is adapted and expanded from Frances Pritchett, Inventory of Language Materials, at the web site:
gopher://gopher.cc.columbia.edu:71/11/clioplus/scholarly/SouthAsia/Teaching/LM.

## Textbooks

Barker, M.A.R., et al. (1993) Spoken Urdu, 3 vols (with cassettes), Ithaca, NY: Spoken Language Services.
Bhatia, Tej K. and Koul, Ashok (1999) Colloquial Urdu: A Complete Language Course, London: Routledge.
Glassman, Eugene H. (1995) Spoken Urdu: A Beginning Course (with cassettes), Lahore: Nirali Kitaben Publishing House.
Grainger, Peter L. (1986) Making a Sound Start in Urdu (with cassettes), Lahore: Nirali Kitaben Publishing House. (Pronunciation drills, explanations, dialogues; correlates with Barker, Spoken Urdu.)
Matthews, D.J. and Shackle, C. (1982) Introduction to Urdu, London: School of Oriental and African Studies.
Naim, C.M. (1999) Introductory Urdu, 2 vols, Chicago: Center for South Asian Studies, University of Chicago.
Platts, John T. A Grammar of the Hindustani or Urdu Language. 1967 reprint of London 1904, Delhi: Munshiram Manoharlal.
Russell, Ralph (1981-86) A New Course in Urdu and Spoken Hindi, vol. 1, vol. 2, An Outline of Grammar and Common Usage, vol. 3, Rapid Readings, vol. 4, The Urdu Script, London: School of Oriental and African Studies.

Urdu Writing System
Hanaway, William L. and Spooner, Brian (1995) Reading Nasta ${ }^{c}$ liq, Persian and Urdu Hands from 1500 to the Present, Costa Mesa, CA: Mazda Publishers.
Koul, Omkar N. (1991) Urdu Script: Reading and Writing, New Delhi: Creative Publishers.
McGregor, R.S. (1991) Urdu Study Materials for use with Outline of Hindi Grammar, New Delhi: Oxford University Press.
(See also sections of textbooks by Barker 1993, Naim 1999 and Russell 1986 which are devoted to the writing system.)

Glossed readers and glossaries for published short stories
Ahmad, Mumtaz (1985) Urdu Newspaper Reader (with cassettes), Wheaton, MD: Dunwoody Press.
Barker, M.A.R. et al. (1968) An Urdu Newspaper Reader, Ithaca, NY: Spoken Language Services.
Kalsi, A.S. et al. (1991) Modern Urdu Texts. Urdu Short Stories, London: School of Oriental and African Studies. (A glossary to accompany selected short stories by Prem Chand, Manto, Krishan Chandar, Bedi, Intizar Husain, and Mazhar ul Islam.)
Matthews, D.J. and Shackle, C. (1991) A Selection of Twentieth Century Urdu Verse, London: School of Oriental and African Studies.
Matthews, D.J. (1994) Ghalib: Eight Letters and Fifteen Ghazals, London: School of Oriental and African Studies.
Taj, Afroz (1996) Tanhaiyan, Ankahi and Ahsas (Companion), Raleigh, NC: Hillsborough Street Textbooks. (Summaries of Pakistani television series, episode by episode, with brief vocabularies, followed by discussion questions, in both Urdu calligraphy and typeset Devanagari script.)
Shackle, C. and Snell, R. (1990) Hindi and Urdu since 1800: A Common Rcader, London: School of Oriental and African Studies.

## Dictlonaries and glossaries

Ferozsons Urdu-English Dictionary: A Comprehensive Dictionary of Current Vocabulary (1983), Lahore: Ferozsons.
Kitabistan's Twentieth Century Standard Dictionary. Lahore: Kitabistan Publishing Company (Urdu-English and English-Urdu).
Platts, John T. A Dictionary of Urdu, Classical Hindi, and English, reprint (1977) of 1930, New Delhi: Oriental Books Reprint Corp. (Also: reprint (1994) of 1911, Lahore: Sang-e-Meel. Original edition 1884.)
الداج مولوى فيروز الدين (9^८ ا ) جاله فيروزاللغات ـ دبلى : انجم بكى گيو
(Alhaj Maulvi Firozuddin (1987) Jame Firoz-ul-Lughat, Delhi: Anjum Book Depot.)
Schomer, K. et al. (1983) Basic Vocabulary for Hindi and Urdu, Berkeley, CA: Center for South Asia Studies, University of California.
A

achar ..... 109Adjectival use of participles.176-7, 181-2
Adjectives. ..... 32-50
case suffixes o .....  35
comparison with sē ..... 46-47
comparison with tar, tarin. ..... 47.48
marking of. ..... 32-34
Persian and Arabic. ..... 37-38
repeated ..... $45-46$
Adverbial phrases of manner with sè ..... 60
Adverbial use of participles ..... 177-8, 182-4, 186
ending in $\mathrm{-an}$ ..... $. . .51-67$
65,270
modal. ..... 62-65
of degree .....  61
of manne ..... 59-60
of place ..... 51-55
of time ..... 67, 189-91
repeated ..... 65-66
Advisability shown by căhiē ..... 137-8
agar.. $66,99,101-3,114,122,129-30,210,224$
Agent 139, See also Instrument
Agreement. ..... 192-195
Agreement of verbs in perfective tenses ..... 217
aisā... ..... 40,59
alhamdu lillāb ..... 282
Anticipation shown by dênā. ..... 141
ap.................................................................................................................................-18, 104 reflexive pronoun. .....  25
āpas mëm̀ ..... 25, 71
apnē āp. .....  25
Approximation ..... 258-271
definite article ..... 268-9
nouns of instrumen ..... 265
nouns of place ..... 269
participles ..... 261-4
plural form .....  .268
prepositions ..... $265-7$
$.267-8$
root structure. ..... 258-9
suffixes ..... 270-71
verb forms. ..... 259-60
arē.. ..... 17-18
astagfinullăh ..... 220-221
aur bhì. ..... 216
az. ..... 251
B
ba. ..... 251
bahut. ..... 61, 188
balke ..... 221
basartēke. ..... 99, $224-5$
batạ. ..... 235
bă. ..... 251
bhii.. ..... 251

bhï...bhī ..... | 64, 222 |
| :--- |
| . .279 |

bismillah.... ..... 64, 222

C
calhie
Calendar and clock time.
.237-44

D
dar: .....  251
Dates, writing. .....  240-41
Day, divisions of ..... 241, 243-4
Days of the week ..... 239-40
Demonstrative pronouns. .....  15-16
Denominative verbs. ..... 80,95-96
causative ..... 175
in compound sequences. .....  156
dikhäi dēnă ..... 68-71
Direct causativ
Direct objects ..... 70-1, 187-8
'Double' ..... 236
Dual, Arabic. .....  265
Durative aspect. ..... 89-90. 111
E
Echo words. .....  13
Elative. ..... 270
Emphatic particle hi ..... 68, 189, 190-91, 199, 211-15
Emphatic particle tak .....  76
Evileye ..... 280
Experiencer subjects. ..... 71-2, 86
F
Fractions. ..... 233-5
Future, immediate .....  120
Future tense ..... 106-8
G
Gender
agreement of adjectives. ..... 34-5, 195
and number suffixes of adjectives .....  34
Greetings ..... 272-3
रair. ..... 268
H
Habit shown by karnä ..... 131-2
Habitual
aspect. ..... 89-91, 118
rrealis ..... 122
past tense ..... $120-21$
present ..... 118-20
presumptive tense ..... 122
hāläñ̉ke ..... 224
ham, 'we'. ..... 17-18
ham-, 'same' ..... 250
'Have' ..... 85-6
häc.
häc. ..... 218
hī.... 68, 189, 190-91, 199, 211-15
hī nahïm....bhi ..... 216
occurring as a suffix ..... 212-214
hōnā, 'to be' .....  92-95
as an auxiliary verb ..... 89-90,95
Honorific levels in request forms. ..... 104-5
I
dhar ..... 56
Immediate future. ..... 120
mmediate past tense. ..... I26-8
Imminent action ..... 139
mpending action ..... 140
Imperative, see 'Request forms'
Imperfective participle $88,90,118,176-180$
+hi.. ..... 178
+j àñ. .....  .123

+ rahnã ..... [22-3
+ vaqt . ..... 178
repeated .....  $179-80$
used as a qualifier. .....  $76-80$
Imperfective tenses .....  88-90, 118
mpersonal constructions ..... $.71-2,134-9,194$
with experiencer subjects ..... 71-2
Incapacity ..... 74,131
Increment-ä $87,158-165,168-71$
ndefinite adverbs used with irony ..... $66-7$
Indefinite compounds ..... $207-8$
ndefinite pronouns + bhī ..... 217
Indirect causative verbs. ..... 68, 171-4
Indirect objects. ..... … 70,188
$0,132-42$
finitives ..... 137-8 ..... 135-7
+ hai
+ hai


K
kā
kā...
expressing possession ..... 68$68-69,79,81-4,85-6$
marking objects
ka să ..... 43
kab.
kabhī. ..... 
kāfi... ..... 54, 214
kahămı, ..... $\stackrel{.}{48}$
kahüm.. $55,66,212,214$
$. .66-67,214-215$
kaisā.. .....  39-41, 59
kaun 27-28, 43, 66
kaun kaun. ..... 30-31
kaun sä. .....  43
ke.... ..99-100, 225-7
kidhar 52, 56, 66
kis jagah ..... 52, 56
dis taraf ..... 52,57
kis tarah ..... 52, 60
kis vagt ..... 52,54-5
kitnă. 39-40, 61
" $\overline{0}$ $7,69-72,79,86,125,135-138,140,188,190,194$
suffix $\overline{\mathbf{e}} \sim$ (h)ém replacing ..... 21-2
kōi.
kōi bhi koi bis ..... 217
kōi kōi. .....  31
kōī na kōi. ..... - 31
kuch ..... 29-30
kucb bhī ..... 217
kuch kuch. .....  31
kyā.... 26-27, 66-67, 191-192
kyā..kyā. .....  .323
kyōm ..... 218-19
kyömike ..... 223
140
kē pās. ..... 83, 86
L
16.. ..... 268
lagnā. ..... 71-72, 77, 140-1
Leaders ..... 218-9
Locative ..... 76-78
lēkin. ..... 221
M
maâz allāh ..... 282
magar ..... 221
Main verb. ..... 143
Mass nouns .....  6.7
mās̄ā allăh. ..... 279
mat. ..... 62-3
mēm. ..... 76-77, 133
Modal adverbs. ..... 62-5
Modal verbs ..... 115-117
Modification shown by izăfat. .....  247
Money ..... $244-5$
Months of the year ..... 237-8
mubărak236
Nna......62-3, 89-90, 98, 108, 114, 122, 126, 129
220
nà tag ..... 22
пп̄, Persian negative particle. ..... , 138
nahīm to. ..... 211
Narrative imperfective ..... 118
Natural gender. ..... 2-3
Necessity ..... 99, 135-7
Negative . 62-3, See also na, nahīm, mal assertion ..... 142
particles, Arabic ..... 268
particle, Persian ..... 250
sentences ..... 191
'Neither...nor' ..... 64
nē. $73,124-5,158,166-8$
Nominative case ..... 7,19
Non-count (mass) nouns ..... 6-7
Noun phrases ..... 188-9
Nouns. .....  114
as units of measure ..... 13-14
gender of. .....  $1-5$
marking of
marking of ..... 1-2
case of. ..... -12
plural of ..... 5-6
repeated ..... 13
Number agreement of adjectives. ..... 34-5, 195
of verbs ..... 192-3
Numbers. ..... 228-37
with the oblique plural suffix ..... 10-11 ..... 28, 230-32
cardinal
cardinal
ordinal ..... 229, 233 ..... 257
237
Persian
Persian0
$\stackrel{\rightharpoonup}{\mathbf{o}}$. ..... 217
218
- 1 ..... Objects. ..... 70-1, 187-8
agreement of verbs with 124-5, 134-9, 193-4
direct. ..... 70-1, 187.8
indirect ..... 70, 188
marked by kā ..... -... 69
marked by kō ..... 70-1, 188
marked by par ..... $\begin{array}{r}1.79 \\ \hline .75\end{array}$
Obligation ..... 99, 138-9
Oblique case ..... $7-11,16-7,27-28,35-36$
Oblique imperfect participle +hi ..... 178
blique infinitive ..... 139-42
+ dēnā ..... 141


reflexive. ..... 24-6
relative. ..... 199-200
Prophets, mentioning .....  278
Punctual aspect. ..... 90-91, 124
Purpose. ..... 140, 141-2
Rrahā showing durative aspect
111
rahnā. $1,122-3,132$
Reflexive possessive apnă ..... 24-25, 71
Reflexives. ..... 24-6, 163
Relative adjectives ..... 201-2
Relative adverb ..... 202-7
of manner. ..... 205-7
of place ..... 202-3
of time. ..... 203-5
Relative pronoun jo ..... 196-209
followed by bhi ..... 208-9
followed by indefinite words. ..... 207-8
repeated. .....  209
Relative-correlative sentences ..... 196-209
order of clauses .....  198
Remote past tense. ..... 128-9
Request forms ..... 104-6
Requests, formal polite ..... 105-6, 276
Root of verb, and forms based on ..... 87, 89, 96-117, 143
S41-3
${ }^{\text {sā....... }}$ sahí .. .....  219
saknā. ..... 115-6
sallallähu alaihi va sallam ..... 278
Schwa deletion .....  6
sē.. $73-5,80,85,130-1,133,168,171$following spatial-temporal postpositions
74in adverbial phrases
in comparison of adjectives ..... 46-7
marking objects .....  75
marking the instrument. 73-4, 131, 168, 171
Simple past tense. ..... 125-6
sirf.. ..... 62, 188Stative verbs.
$\qquad$ $114,120,127-8,132,147,182$Stipulative relative clause198
subhān allāh ..... 279
Subject marked by kō ..... 71-2
marked by nē. ..... 124-5, 73
Subject-verb agreement. ..... $93-94,98,106,111,118,124-5,158$
192-195
Subjunctive $96-100,105,114$
Subordinating conjunctions. ..... 224-5
expressions ..... 99-100
Suffixes, Persian ..... 248-50
sunāi dēnã.. .....  167-8
abas ..... 218, 277
sāyad. $62,98,114,12$T
tab. .52-3, 212, 214
tabhī.
tabhī. ..... 53, 214 ..... 53, 214
Tags... ..... 192, 218-19
as an emphatic particie................................ ..... $.76,85$
takalluf. ..... 273
tanvin. ..... 270
tasrif. ..... 276
auba. ..... 281
 ..... 99, 224-5
Thanking someone ..... 276-7
Time, telling ..... 241-4
Time, to take' ..... 77
to.............. 101-3,210-211, 215 ..... 216
$57-68$
Transitive verbs
double ..... 163-5
which do not take n ..... 166-8
Transitivity with denominative verbs ..... 165
mixed.. $110,151-2,194-5$
tum. ..... 17-18, 104
tù.... ..... 17-18, 104
'Twice'. ..... 235-6
'Twofold' ..... 236

|  | Index 299 |
| :---: | :---: |
| U |  |
| udhar... | ......... 52, 56 |
| Unfulfilled wishes, conjecture and regret. | .... 103 |
| Unfulfilled/unfulfillable conditions | ........ 102-103 |
| Unintentional action. | ..... 157-8 |
| us jagah.. | ... 52, 56 |
| us taraf. | ... 52,57 |
| us tarah. | .... 52, 60 |
| us vaqt. | .......... 52, 54 |
| utnă. | .... 39-40, 202 |
| V |  |
| vāh. | ............. 218 |
| vahām. | 2, 55, 212, 214 |
| vaisā. | 39-41, 59, 201 |
| vālā. | 132, 139, 197-8 |
| vaqt................................................. | s vaqt, kis vaqt |
| Vector verb..................................................................................................... 143 |  |
| baiṭhnā | ..... 148 |
| dēnã. | .......... 148-9 |
| đ̣ā̀nā. | ............ 150 |
| jānā ... | ............. 146 |
| lēnā | ...........149-50 |
| nikalnã | ..... 147 |
| parnā | .... 146-7 |
| rakhnā | ..........150-51 |
| uṭhnä | ........... 147-8 |
| Verbs .........................................................................................................87-142 |  |
| causative | ..168-75 |
| collocation with postpositions | .... 79-80 |
| intransitive. | ...... 157-8 |
| main. | ............. 143 |
| phrases... | ............. 192-3 |
| roots of and forms based on. | 9, 96-117, 143 |
| transitive. | ...........157-68 |
| Verbal nouns, Arabic. | ....261-4 |
| vo............. | 5-17, 212, 214 |
| Vocative case.. | ........11-12, 35 |
| interjections ... | ............. 217-8 |
| Vowel, penultimate short reduced.......................................................................... 6 |  |

w
Word order in sentences. ..... 187-92 ..... 187-92
X .....  .25
$.25-26$
xud baxud.Y
ahăm̆.. $52,55,212,214$
ye....
15-17, 212, 214
Yes-or-no question.. ..... 15, 26, 192
yüm̉. ..... 52, 59
zariè
zyāda ..... 48, 61, 188


[^0]:    2. This stem is actually derived from sab hī (sab, 'all' +hi , emphatic particle).
[^1]:    1 See Chapter 1 , footnote 3 for a definition of the term 'case' as used in this work.

[^2]:    2 An alternate form, mujhē 1 , is however more common than mujh kō $\quad$. The pronouns tū, tum, ham, vo and ye also have alternate forms. See $\$ 210$.

[^3]:    3 ن نُهون unhōm nê, etc. is also correct, and reflects the phonology more accurately. But the spellings given here are the ones in common use.

[^4]:    كيا يم گهرًا بـ
    kyā ye gharā hai?
    Is this is a water pot?

[^5]:    4 One would normally expect kuch dēr kē bād, but after dēr, omission of kē is idiomatic.

[^6]:    1 See Chapter i, footnote 3, for a definition of the term 'case' as used in this work

[^7]:    خطرنآ راستش
    xatarnāk rāsta
    a dangerous road (more than usually hazardous)

[^8]:    2 tyüm and tab are not members of the 'far' category, but surviving members of a nearly vanished calegory, the $t$-sel, or correlative set.

[^9]:    3 beh بح 'good' occurs only as a prefix, whereas behtar بهتر 'better' and behtarin بهترين 'best' occur as independent words.

[^10]:    4 bad بد 'bad', occurs only as a prefix, whereas badtar بدتر 'worse' and badtarin بدترين ' 'worst' occur as independent words.

[^11]:    1 vahh, an expression of admiration, is untranslatable here.

[^12]:    آب وه ن~ آيا -
    àj vo na ayyā
    He didn't (did not) come today.

[^13]:    2 In this sentence, kahăm is used with its lexical meaning; it is kaum which is used sarcastically:

[^14]:    احتياط سـ
    ehtiyāt sē (<ehtiyāt, caution + sē)
    carefully

[^15]:    5 milnā has another meaning, 'to be available'. In this sense it is intransitive and does not take an object.

[^16]:    6 Also occurs reversed as bazaria-e-X (with the Persian preposition ba). See $\S 531$
    7 Also occurs reversed as bataur-e-X. See $\$ 531$ for an example.

[^17]:    8 Also occurs as kē bar xilāf, and with izāfat as xilāf-e-X (8532). xilăf as an independent noun rarely occurs in modern Urdu
    9 Occurs also as ilāva $\mathbf{X} k \bar{e}$. ilāva does not take the oblique singular suffix (although $k \bar{e}$ shows the oblique case).

[^18]:    10 Also occurs as sivä-e-X kē. Its inclusion among the adverbs is no more than a matter of

[^19]:    1 Phonetically, the perfective stem has a short vowel: [huy]. It is spelled with a long vowel: hü-

[^20]:    1 Verb sequences consisting of a noun or adjective plus an inflected verb are referred to as 'denominative verbs' ( $\$ 607$ ).

[^21]:    4 Some scholars include additional items in this list, such as chïñkā̄ 1 cillảnā

[^22]:    1 The oblique kē is hard to explain here, but keeps the sentence apart from āp kā jaisà qaalīn, which would mean 'a carpet like yob'.

[^23]:    
    jab bāris xatm hūi tab sab lōg calè gaē
    When the rain finished, (only then) everybody left.

[^24]:    جب تكى بهم جيتخ بيى ، كسى بات كا كهئكا ست كر -
    jab takham jitē haim, kisī bāt kã khaṭkā mat kar
    As long as we're alive, don't be anxious about anything. (Prem Chand, Gödän)

[^25]:    2 sạ̈hē never occurs with the singular numeral $\overline{\text { Ek }}$ (dẹ̆h is used for 'one and a half).

[^26]:    3 Sometimes colloquially pronounced zil haj.

[^27]:    4 This sign is derived from the initial stroke of $\varepsilon$ (aii), for isavi عيسوى (Christian Era).

[^28]:    5 subahh is an Arabic loanword: saverãa is an indigenous Urdu word. Both mean 'morning', but

[^29]:    6 The initial $\overline{1}(-a)$ of this plural pattern is actually the consonantal \& hamza in Arabic: القطع (hamzat al-qut!). The alif is the seat of the hamza.

[^30]:    1 Originally mizäj-e-sarīf, with izäfat. It means 'your noble disposition'.
    2 An abbreviation of $\mathbf{k y a ̄ a ̄} \mathbf{p} \mathbf{k a ̄}$ mizāj baxair hai, 'Is your disposition well?'

[^31]:    4. mubärakbād is the Persian equivalent of Urdu mubārak hō, 'May blessings be.' bād is the optative of bīdan, 'to be'.

    Originally Persian sàd bās, 'remain happy'.

